

Annexes

The following twenty-eight annexes provide additional information to the material presented in the main body of this report. Annexes A through Q discuss methodologies for individual source categories in greater detail than was presented in the main body of the report and include explicit activity data and emission factor tables. Annex R analyzes the key sources in this report. Annex S presents a summary of Global Warming Potential values. Annexes T and U summarize U.S. emissions of ozone depleting substances (e.g., CFCs and HCFCs) and sulfur dioxide (SO₂), respectively. Annex V provides a complete list of emission sources assessed in this report. Annex W presents the IPCC reference approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Annex X addresses the criteria for the inclusion of an emission source category and some of the sources that meet the criteria but are nonetheless excluded from U.S. estimates. Annex Y provides some useful constants, unit definitions, and conversions. Annexes Z and AA provide a listing of abbreviations and chemical symbols used. Finally, Annex AB contains a glossary of terms related to greenhouse gas emissions and inventories.

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ANNEX A

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from fossil fuel combustion were estimated using a “bottom-up” methodology characterized by six steps. These steps are described below.

Step 1: Determine Energy Consumption by Fuel Type and Sector

The bottom-up methodology used by the United States for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion is conceptually similar to the approach recommended by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) for countries that intend to develop detailed, sectoral-based emission estimates (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Basic consumption data are presented in Columns 2 through 8 of Table A-1 through Table A-12, with totals by fuel type in Column 8 and totals by end-use sector in the last rows. Fuel consumption data for the bottom-up approach were obtained directly from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy. These data were first gathered in physical units, and then converted to their energy equivalents (see “Energy Conversions” in Annex Y). The EIA data were collected through a variety of consumption surveys at the point of delivery or use and qualified with survey data on fuel production, imports, exports, and stock changes. Individual data elements were supplied by a variety of sources within EIA. Most information was taken from published reports, although some data were drawn from unpublished energy studies and databases maintained by EIA.

Energy consumption data were aggregated by sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, electricity generation, and U.S. territories), primary fuel type (e.g., coal, natural gas, and petroleum), and secondary fuel type (e.g., motor gasoline, distillate fuel, etc.). The 2001 total energy consumption across all sectors, including territories, and energy types was 82,933 trillion British thermal units (TBTu), as indicated in the last entry of Column 8 in Table A-1. This total includes fuel used for non-energy purposes and fuel consumed as international bunkers, both of which are deducted in later steps.

Electricity consumption information was allocated to each sector based on EIA’s distribution of electricity retail sales to ultimate customers (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, and other). Because the “other” fuel use includes sales to both the commercial and transportation sectors, EIA’s limited transportation electricity use data were subtracted from “other” electricity use and also reported separately. This total was consequently combined with the commercial electricity data. Fuel consumption data for electricity generation data by nonutility power producers were categorized by the EIA under a “direct use” category. These data were combined with electricity fuel use by the industrial sector. Further information on these electricity end uses is described in EIA’s *Annual Energy Review 2001* (EIA 2002a). Additionally, electricity consumption for the U.S. territories was estimated as the sum of the net electricity consumption in Puerto Rico, Guam, U.S. Virgin Islands, American Samoa, and U.S. Pacific Islands (EIA 2002b).

There were a number of modifications made in this report that may cause consumption information herein to differ from figures given in the cited literature. These are 1) the reallocation of some coking coal, petroleum coke, and natural gas consumption for ammonia production to the Industrial Processes chapter, 2) corrections for synthetic natural gas production, 3) corrections for ethanol added to motor gasoline, and 4) corrections for biogas in natural gas.

First, portions of the fuel consumption data for three fuel categories—coking coal, petroleum coke, and natural gas—were reallocated to the Industrial Processes chapter, as these portions were actually consumed as raw material during non-energy related industrial processes. Coking coal, also called “coal coke,” is used as a raw material (specifically as a reducing agent) in the blast furnace process to produce iron and steel, and therefore is not used as a fuel for this process. Similarly, petroleum coke is used in multiple processes as a raw material, and is thus not used as a fuel in those applications. The processes in which petroleum coke is used include 1) ferroalloy production, 2) aluminum production (for the production of carbon anodes and cathodes), and 3) titanium dioxide production (in the chloride process). Finally, natural gas consumption is used for the production of ammonia. Consumption of these fuels for non-energy purposes is presented in the Industrial Processes chapter, and is removed from the energy and non-energy consumption estimates within the Energy chapter.

Second, a portion of industrial coal accounted for in EIA combustion figures is actually used to make “synthetic natural gas” via coal gasification. The energy in this gas enters the natural gas stream, and is accounted for in natural gas consumption statistics. Because this energy is already accounted for as natural gas, it is deducted from industrial coal consumption to avoid double counting. This makes the figure for other industrial coal consumption in this report slightly lower than most EIA sources.

Third, ethanol has been added to the motor gasoline stream for several years, but prior to 1993 this addition was not captured in EIA motor gasoline statistics. Starting in 1993, ethanol was included in gasoline statistics. However, because ethanol is a biofuel, which is assumed to result in no net CO₂ emissions, the amount of ethanol added is subtracted from total gasoline consumption. Thus, motor gasoline consumption statistics given in this report may be slightly lower than in EIA sources.

Fourth, EIA natural gas consumption statistics include “biomass gas,” which is upgraded landfill methane that is sold to pipelines. However, because this gas is biogenic, the biomass gas total is deducted from natural gas consumption. The subtraction is done only from natural gas in the industrial sector, as opposed to all end-sectors, because the biogas amount is small. Due to this adjustment—and the ammonia adjustment mentioned previously—industrial natural gas consumption in this report is slightly lower than in EIA sources.

There are also three basic differences between the consumption figures presented in Table A-1 through Table A-12 and those recommended in the IPCC emission inventory methodology.

First, consumption data in the U.S. inventory are presented using higher heating values (HHV)¹ rather than the lower heating values (LHV)² reflected in the IPCC emission inventory methodology. This convention is followed because data obtained from EIA are based on HHV. Of note, however, is that EIA renewable energy statistics are often published using LHV. The difference between the two conventions relates to the treatment of the heat energy that is consumed in the process of evaporating the water contained in the fuel. The simplified convention used by the International Energy Agency for converting from HHV to LHV is to multiply the energy content by 0.95 for petroleum and coal and by 0.9 for natural gas.

Second, while EIA's energy use data for the United States includes only the 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia, the data reported to the Framework Convention on Climate Change are to include energy consumption within territories. Therefore, consumption estimates for U.S. territories were added to domestic consumption of fossil fuels. Energy consumption data from U.S. territories are presented in Column 7 of Table A-1 through Table A-12. It is reported separately from domestic sectoral consumption, because it is collected separately by EIA with no sectoral disaggregation.

Third, the domestic sectoral consumption data in Table A-1 through Table A-12 include bunker fuels used for international transport activities and non-energy uses of fossil fuels. The IPCC requires countries to estimate emissions from international bunker fuels separately and exclude these emissions from national totals, so international bunker fuel emissions have been estimated in Table A-13 and deducted from national estimates (see Step 4). Similarly, fossil fuels used to produce non-energy products that store carbon rather than release it to the atmosphere are provided in Table A-14 and deducted from national emission estimates (see Step 3). The final fate of these fossil fuel based products is dealt with under the waste combustion source category in cases where the products are combusted through waste management practices.

Step 2: Determine the Carbon Content of All Fuels

The carbon content of combusted fossil fuels was estimated by multiplying energy consumption (Columns 2 through 8 of Table A-1 through Table A-12) by fuel-specific carbon content coefficients (see Table A-15 and Table A-16) that reflect the amount of carbon per unit of energy in each fuel. The resulting carbon contents are sometimes referred to as potential emissions, or the maximum amount of carbon that could potentially be released to the atmosphere if all carbon in the fuels were oxidized. The carbon content coefficients used in the U.S. inventory were derived by EIA from detailed fuel information and are similar to the carbon content coefficients contained in the IPCC's default methodology (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), with modifications reflecting fuel qualities specific to the United States.

¹ Also referred to as Gross Calorific Values (GCV).

² Also referred to as Net Calorific Values (NCV).

Step 3: Adjust for the amount of Carbon Stored in Products

Depending on the end-use, non-energy uses of fossil fuels can result in long term storage of some or all of the carbon contained in the fuel. For example, asphalt made from petroleum can sequester up to 100 percent of the carbon contained in the petroleum feedstock for extended periods of time. Other non-energy fossil fuel products, such as lubricants or plastics also store carbon, but can lose or emit some of this carbon when they are used and/or burned as waste.³

The amount of carbon in non-energy fossil fuel products was based upon data that addressed the fraction of carbon that remains in products after they are manufactured, with all non-energy use attributed to the industrial, transportation, and territories end-use sectors. This non-energy consumption is presented in Table A-14. These data were then multiplied by fuel-specific carbon content coefficients (Table A-15 and Table A-16) to obtain the carbon content of the fuel, or the maximum amount of carbon that could remain in non-energy products (Column 5 of Table A-14). This carbon content was then multiplied by the fraction of carbon assumed to actually have remained in products (Column 6 of Table A-14), resulting in the final estimates by sector and fuel type, which are presented in Columns 7 and 8 of Table A-14. A detailed discussion of carbon stored in products is provided in the Energy chapter and in Annex C.

Step 4: Subtract Carbon in International Bunker Fuels

Emissions from international transport activities, or international bunker fuel consumption, are not included in national totals, as required by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). There is currently disagreement internationally as to how these emissions should be allocated, and until this issue is resolved, countries are asked to report them separately. EIA energy statistics, however, include these bunker fuels—jet fuel for aircraft, and distillate fuel oil and residual fuel oil for marine shipping—as part of fuel consumption by the transportation end-use sector. To compensate for this inclusion, international bunker fuel emissions⁴ were calculated separately (see Table A-13) and the carbon content of these fuels was subtracted from the transportation end-use sector. International bunker fuel emissions from military activities were developed using data provided by the Department of Defense as described in the International Bunker Fuels section of the Energy chapter and in Annex J. The calculations of international bunker fuel emissions followed the same procedures used for other fuel emissions (i.e., estimation of consumption, determination of carbon content, and adjustment for the fraction of carbon not oxidized).

Step 5: Account for Carbon that Does Not Oxidize During Combustion

Because combustion processes are not 100 percent efficient, some of the carbon contained in fuels is not emitted in a gaseous form to the atmosphere. Rather, it remains behind as soot, particulate matter and ash. The estimated fraction of carbon not oxidized in U.S. energy conversion processes due to inefficiencies during combustion ranges from 0.5 percent for natural gas to 1 percent for petroleum and coal. Except for coal these assumptions are consistent with the default values recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). In the United States, unoxidized carbon from coal combustion was estimated to be no more than one percent (Bechtel 1993).

Table A-15 presents fractions oxidized by fuel type, which are multiplied by the net carbon content of the combusted energy to give final emissions estimates.

Of the fraction of carbon that is oxidized (e.g., 99 to 99.5 percent), the vast majority is emitted in its fully oxidized form as carbon dioxide (CO₂). A much smaller portion of this “oxidized” carbon is also emitted as carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). When in the

³ See Waste Combustion section of the Energy chapter for a discussion of emissions from the combustion of plastics in the municipal solid waste stream.

⁴ Refer to the International Bunker Fuels section of the Energy chapter for a description of the methodology for distinguishing between bunker and non-bunker fuel consumption.

atmosphere, though, these partially oxidized or unoxidized carbon compounds are generally oxidized to CO₂ through atmospheric processes (e.g., reaction with hydroxyl (OH)).⁵

Step 6: Summarize Emission Estimates

Actual CO₂ emissions in the United States were summarized by major fuel (i.e., coal, petroleum, natural gas, geothermal) and consuming sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, electricity generation, and U.S. territories). Adjustments for international bunker fuels and carbon in non-energy products were made. Emission estimates are expressed in teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.).

To determine total emissions by final end-use sector, emissions from electricity generation were distributed to each end-use sector according to its share of aggregate electricity consumption (see Table A-17). This pro-rated approach to allocating emissions from electricity generation may overestimate or underestimate emissions for particular sectors due to differences in the average carbon content of fuel mixes burned to generate electricity.

⁵ See Indirect CO₂ from CH₄ Oxidation section in Energy chapter for a discussion of proper accounting of carbon from hydrocarbon and CO emissions.

Table A-15: Key Assumptions for Estimating Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Fuel Type	Carbon Content Coefficient (Tg Carbon/QBtu)	Fraction Oxidized
Coal		
Residential Coal	[a]	0.99
Commercial Coal	[a]	0.99
Industrial Coking Coal	[a]	0.99
Industrial Other Coal	[a]	0.99
Coke Imports	27.85	0.99
Transportation Coal	NC	NC
Utility Coal	[a]	0.99
U.S. Territory Coal (bit)	25.14	0.99
Natural Gas	14.47	0.995
Petroleum		
Asphalt & Road Oil	20.62	0.99
Aviation Gasoline	18.87	0.99
Distillate Fuel Oil	19.95	0.99
Jet Fuel	[a]	0.99
Kerosene	19.72	0.99
LPG	[a]	0.995
LPG (energy use/Territories)	[a]	0.995
LPG (non-energy use)	[a]	-
Lubricants	20.24	0.99
Motor Gasoline	[a]	0.99
Residual Fuel Oil	21.49	0.99
Other Petroleum		
AvGas Blend Components	18.87	0.99
Crude Oil	[a]	0.99
MoGas Blend Components	[a]	0.99
Misc. Products	[a]	0.99
Misc. Products (Territories)	20.00	0.99
Naphtha (<401 deg. F)	18.14	0.99
Other Oil (>401 deg. F)	19.95	0.99
Pentanes Plus	18.24	0.99
Petrochemical Feedstocks	19.37	0.99
Petroleum Coke	27.85	0.99
Still Gas	17.51	0.99
Special Naphtha	19.86	0.99
Unfinished Oils	[a]	0.99
Waxes	19.81	0.99
Geothermal	2.05	1.00

Sources: Carbon coefficients from EIA. Combustion efficiency for coal from Bechtel (1993) and for petroleum and natural gas from IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

- Not applicable

NC (Not Calculated)

[a] These coefficients vary annually due to fluctuations in fuel quality (see Table A-16).

Step 2. Allocate sectoral consumption by rank and state of origin

U.S. energy statistics provide data on the origin of coal used in four areas: 1) the electric power industry, 2) industrial coking, 3) all other industrial uses, and 4) the residential and commercial end-use sectors. Because U.S. energy statistics do not provide the distribution of coal rank consumed by each consuming sector, it is assumed that each sector consumes a representative mixture of coal ranks from a particular state that matches the mixture of all coal produced in that state during the year.

Step 3. Weight sectoral carbon contents to reflect the rank and state of origin of coal consumed

Sectoral carbon contents are calculated by multiplying the share of coal purchased from each state by rank by the carbon content estimated in Step 1. The resulting partial carbon contents are then totaled across all states and ranks to generate a national sectoral carbon content.

$$C_{\text{sector}} = \sum S_{\text{rank1}} * C_{\text{rank1}} + S_{\text{rank2}} * C_{\text{rank2}} + \dots + S_{\text{rank50}} * C_{\text{rank50}}$$

Where:

C_{sector} is the carbon content by consuming sector;

S_{rank} is the portion of consuming sector coal consumption attributed to a given rank in each state; and

C_{rank} is the estimated carbon content of a given rank in each state.

Step 4. Develop national-level carbon contents by rank for comparison to IPCC defaults

Although not used to calculate emissions, national-level carbon contents by rank are more easily compared to carbon contents of other countries than are sectoral carbon contents. This step requires weighting the state-level carbon contents by rank developed under Step 1 by overall coal production by state and rank (consumption by rank is unavailable in U.S. energy statistics). Each state-level carbon content by rank is multiplied by the share of national production of that rank that each state represents. The resulting partial carbon contents are then summed across all states to generate an overall carbon content for each rank.

$$N_{\text{rank}} = \sum P_{\text{rank1}} * C_{\text{rank1}} + P_{\text{rank2}} * C_{\text{rank2}} + \dots + P_{\text{rankn}} * C_{\text{rankn}}$$

Where:

N_{rank} is the national carbon content by rank;

P_{rank} is the portion of U.S. coal production attributed to a given rank in each state; and

C_{rank} is the estimated carbon content of a given rank in each state.

Data Sources

The ultimate analyses of coal samples was based on the 6,588 coal samples from the U.S. Geological Survey, CoalQual Database Version 2.0 (1998). Data contained in the CoalQual Database are derived primarily from samples taken between 1973 and 1989, and were largely reported in State Geological Surveys.

Data on coal distribution by state and consumption by sector, as well as coal production by state and rank, was obtained from EIA's *Coal Industry Annual* (2002a).

Uncertainty

Carbon contents vary considerably by state. Bituminous coal production and sub-bituminous coal production represented 53.4 percent and 38.1 percent of total U.S. supply in 2000, respectively. Carbon content coefficients for bituminous coal vary from a low of 200.5 pounds carbon dioxide per MMBtu in Kansas to a high of 232.0 pounds carbon dioxide per MMBtu in Montana. In 2000, however, just 200 tons of bituminous coal were produced in Kansas, and none were produced in Montana. In 2000, more than 60 percent of bituminous coal was produced in three states: West Virginia, Kentucky, and Pennsylvania, and this share has remained fairly constant

value greater than that of methane, and therefore are usually separated from raw natural gas at gas processing plants and sold as separate products. Ethane is typically used as a petrochemical feedstock, propane and butane have diverse uses, and natural gasoline³ contributes to the gasoline/naphtha "octane pool," used primarily to make motor gasoline.

Raw natural gas can also contain varying amounts of non-hydrocarbon gases, such as carbon dioxide, nitrogen, helium and other noble gases, and hydrogen sulfide. The share of non-hydrocarbon gases is usually less than 5 percent of the total, but there are individual natural gas reservoirs where the share can be much larger. The treatment of non-hydrocarbon gases in raw gas varies. Hydrogen sulfide is always removed. Inert gases are removed if their presence is substantial enough to reduce the energy content of the gas below pipeline specifications. Otherwise, inert gases will usually be left in the natural gas. Because the raw gas that is usually flared contains NGLs and carbon dioxide, it will typically have a higher overall carbon content than gas that has been processed and moved to end-use customers via transmission and distribution pipelines.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating the carbon contents of natural gas can be described in five steps.

Step 1. Define pipeline-quality natural gas

In the United States, pipeline-quality natural gas is expected to have an energy content greater than 970 Btu per cubic foot, but less than 1,100 Btu per cubic foot. Hydrogen sulfide content must be negligible. Typical pipeline-quality natural gas is about 95 percent methane, 3 percent NGLs, and 2 percent non-hydrocarbon gases, of which approximately 1 percent is carbon dioxide.

However, there is a range of gas compositions that are consistent with pipeline specifications. The minimum carbon content coefficient for natural gas would match that for pure methane, which equates to an energy content of 1,005 Btu per standard cubic foot. Gas compositions with higher or lower Btu content tend to have higher carbon emissions factors, because the "low" Btu gas has a higher content of inert gases (including carbon dioxide offset with more NGLs), while "high" Btu gas tends to have more NGLs.

Step 2. Define flared gas

Every year, a certain amount of natural gas is flared in the United States. There are several reasons that gas is flared:

- There may be no market for some batches of natural gas, the amount may be too small or too variable, or the quality might be too poor to justify treating the gas and transporting it to market (such is the case when gas contains large shares of carbon dioxide). All natural gas flared for these reasons is probably "rich" associated gas, with relatively high energy content, high NGL content, and a high carbon content.
- Gas treatment plants may flare substantial volumes of natural gas because of "process upsets," because the gas is "off spec," or possibly as part of an emissions control system. Gas flared at processing plants may be of variable quality.

Data on the energy content of flare gas, as reported by states to EIA, indicate an energy content of 1,130 Btu per standard cubic foot. Flare gas may have an even higher energy content than reported by EIA since rich associated gas can have energy contents as high as 1,300 to 1,400 Btu per cubic foot.

Step 3. Determine a relationship between carbon content and heat content

A relationship between carbon content and heat content may be used to develop a carbon content coefficient for natural gas consumed in the United States. In 1994, EIA examined the composition (and therefore

³ A term used in the gas processing industry to refer to a mixture of liquid hydrocarbons (mostly pentanes and heavier hydrocarbons) extracted from natural gas.

carbon contents) of 6,743 samples of pipeline-quality natural gas from utilities and/or pipeline companies in 26 cities located in 19 states. To demonstrate that these samples were representative of actual natural gas "as consumed" in the United States, their heat content was compared to that of the national average. For the most recent year, the average heat content of natural gas consumed in the United States was 1,025 Btu per cubic foot, varying by less than 1 percent (1,025 to 1,031 Btu per cubic foot) over the past 5 years. Meanwhile, the average heat content of the 6,743 samples was 1,027 Btu per cubic foot, and the median heat content was 1,031 Btu per cubic foot. Thus, the average heat content of the sample set falls well within the typical range of natural gas consumed in the United States, suggesting that these samples continue to be representative of natural gas "as consumed" in the U.S. The average and median composition of these samples appears in Table B-4.

Table B-4. Composition of Natural Gas (Percent)

Compound	Average	Median
Methane	93.07	95.00
Ethane	3.21	2.79
Propane	0.59	0.48
Higher Hydrocarbons	0.32	0.30
Non-hydrocarbons	2.81	1.43
Higher Heating Value (Btu per cubic foot)	1,027	1,032

Source: Gas Technology Institute (1992)

Carbon contents were then calculated for a series of sub samples stratified by heat content. Carbon contents were developed for eight separate sub-samples based on heat content and are shown in Table B-5.

Table B-5. Carbon Content of Pipeline-Quality Natural Gas by Energy Content (Tg/QBtu)

Sample	Average Carbon Content
GRI Full Sample	14.51
Greater than 1,000 Btu	14.47
1,025 to 1,035 Btu	14.45
975 to 1,000 Btu	14.73
1,000 to 1,025 Btu	14.43
1,025 to 1,050 Btu	14.47
1,050 to 1,075 Btu	14.58
1,075 to 1,100 Btu	14.65
Greater than 1,100 Btu	14.92
Weighted National Average	14.47

Source: EIA (1994).

Step 4. Apply carbon content coefficients developed in Step 3 to pipeline natural gas

Because there is some regional variation in the energy content of natural gas consumed, a weighted national average carbon content was calculated using the average carbon contents for each sub-sample of gas that conformed with an individual state's typical cubic foot of natural gas. The result was a weighted national average of 14.47 Tg/QBtu. This was identical to the average carbon content of all samples with more than 1,000 Btu per cubic foot and the average carbon content for all samples with a heat content between 1,025 and 1,050 Btu per cubic foot. Because those samples with a heat content below 1,000 Btu had an unusually high carbon content coefficient attributable to large portions of carbon dioxide (not seen in the median sample), they were excluded so as not to bias the carbon content coefficient upwards by including them in the final sample used to select a carbon content.

Step 5. Apply carbon content coefficients developed in Step 3 to flare gas

Selecting a carbon content coefficient for flare gas was much more difficult than for pipeline natural gas because of the uncertainty of its composition and uncertainty of the combustion efficiency of the flare. Because EIA estimates the heat content of flare gas at 1,130 Btu per cubic foot, the average carbon content for samples with more than 1,100 Btu per cubic foot, 14.92 Tg/QBtu, was adopted as the coefficient for flare gas. It should be noted that the sample data set did not include any samples with more than 1,130 Btu per cubic foot.

Data Sources

Natural gas samples were obtained from the Gas Technology Institute (formerly Gas Research Institute) database (1992) as documented in W.E. Liss, W.H. Thrasher, G.F. Steinmetz, P. Chowdiah, and A. Atari, *Variability of Natural Gas Composition in Select Major Metropolitan Areas of the United States*.

Average heat content of natural gas consumed in the United States was taken from Table A4 of EIA's *Monthly Energy Review* (2002).

Data on the average heat content consumed, on a state-by-state basis, was obtained from the U.S. Department of Energy, U.S. Energy Information Administration, *State Energy Data Report 1999*, Tables 1 and 2 (2001c). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/sedr/contents.html#PDF%20Files>.

Uncertainty

The assignment of carbon content coefficients for natural gas, and particularly for flare gas, requires more subjective judgment than the methodology used for coal. This subjective judgment may introduce additional uncertainty.

Figure B-1 shows the relationship between the calculated carbon contents for each natural gas sample and its energy content. This figure illustrates the relatively restricted range of variation in both the energy content (which varies by about 6 percent from average) and the carbon emission coefficient of natural gas (which varies by about 5 percent). Thus, the knowledge that gas has been sold via pipeline to an end-use consumer allows its carbon emission coefficient to be predicted with an accuracy of ± 5.0 percent.

Figure B-1: Carbon Content for Samples of Pipeline-Quality Natural Gas Included in the Gas Technology Institute Database

Source: EIA (1994).

Natural gas suppliers may achieve the same energy contents with a wide variety of methane, higher hydrocarbon, and non-hydrocarbon gas combinations. Thus, the plot reveals large variations in carbon content for a single Btu value. In fact, the variation in carbon content for a single Btu value may be nearly as great as the variation for the whole sample. As a result, while energy content has some predictive value, the specific energy content does not substantially improve the accuracy of an estimated carbon content coefficient beyond the ± 5.0 percent offered with the knowledge that it is of pipeline-quality.

The plot of carbon content also reveals other interesting anomalies. Samples with the lowest emissions coefficients tend to have energy contents of about 1,000 Btu per cubic foot. They are composed of almost pure methane. Samples with a greater proportion of NGLs (e.g., ethane, propane, and butane) tend to have energy contents greater than 1,000 Btu per cubic foot, along with higher emissions coefficients. Samples with a greater proportion of inert gases tend to have lower energy content, but they usually contain carbon dioxide as one of the inert gases and, consequently, also tend to have higher emission coefficients (see left side of Figure B-1).

For the full sample (N=6,743), the average carbon content of a cubic foot of gas was 14.51 Tg/QBtu (see Table B-5). However, this average was raised by both the samples with less than 1,000 Btu per cubic foot that contain large amounts of inert carbon dioxide and those samples with more than 1,050 Btu per cubic foot that contain an unusually large amount of NGLs. Because typical gas consumed in the United States does not contain such a large amount of carbon dioxide or natural gas liquids, a weighted national average of 14.47 Tg/QBtu that represents fuels more typically consumed is used.⁴

Petroleum

There are four critical determinants of the carbon content coefficient for a petroleum-based fuel:

- The density of the fuel (e.g., the weight in kilograms of one barrel of fuel);
- The fraction by mass of the product that consists of hydrocarbons, and the fraction of non-hydrocarbon impurities;
- The specific types of ‘families’ of hydrocarbons that make up the hydrocarbon portion of the fuel; and
- The heat content of the fuel.

$$C_{\text{fuel}} = (D_{\text{fuel}} * S_{\text{fuel}}) / E_{\text{fuel}}$$

Where:

C_{fuel} is the carbon content coefficient of the fuel;

D_{fuel} is the density of the fuel;

S_{fuel} is the share of the fuel that is carbon; and

E_{fuel} is the heat content of the fuel.

Petroleum products vary between 5.6 degrees API gravity (dense products such as asphalt and road oil) and 247 degrees (ethane).⁵ This is a range in density of 60 to 150 kilograms per barrel, or ± 50 percent. The variation in

⁴ The national average was weighted by applying the carbon content associated with the average heat content of natural gas consumed in each state by the portion of national natural gas consumption represented by that state.

⁵ API gravity is an arbitrary scale expressing the gravity or density of liquid petroleum products, as established by the American Petroleum Institute (API). The measuring scale is calibrated in terms of degrees API. The higher the API gravity, the lighter the compound. Light crude oils generally exceed 38 degrees API and heavy crude oils are all crude oils with an API

carbon content, however, is much smaller (± 5 to 7 percent): ethane is 80 percent carbon by weight, while petroleum coke is 90 to 92 percent carbon. The tightly bound range of carbon contents can be explained by basic petroleum chemistry.

Petroleum Chemistry

Crude oil and petroleum products are typically mixtures of several hundred distinct compounds, predominantly hydrocarbons. All hydrocarbons contain hydrogen and carbon in various proportions. When crude oil is distilled into petroleum products, it is sorted into fractions by the boiling temperature of these hundreds of organic compounds. Boiling temperature is strongly correlated with the number of carbon atoms in each molecule. Petroleum products consisting of relatively simple molecules and few carbon atoms have low boiling temperatures, while larger molecules with more carbon atoms have higher boiling temperatures.

Products that boil off at higher temperatures are usually more dense, which implies greater carbon content as well. Petroleum products with higher carbon contents, in general, have lower energy content per unit mass and higher energy content per unit volume than products with lower carbon contents. Empirical research led to the establishment of a set of quantitative relationships between density, energy content per unit weight and volume, and carbon and hydrogen content. Figure B-2 compares carbon content coefficients calculated on the basis of the derived formula with actual carbon content coefficients for a range of crude oils, fuel oils, petroleum products, and pure hydrocarbons. The actual fuel samples were drawn from the sources described below in the discussions of individual petroleum products.

Figure B-2. Estimated and Actual Relationships Between Petroleum Carbon Content Coefficients and Hydrocarbon Density

Source: Carbon content factors for paraffins are calculated based on the properties of hydrocarbons in Guthrie (1960). Carbon content factors from other petroleum products are drawn from sources described below. Relationship between density and emission factors based on the relationship between density and energy content in DOC (1929), and relationship between energy content and fuel composition in Ringen et al. (1979).

The derived empirical relationship between carbon content per unit heat and density is based on the types of hydrocarbons most frequently encountered. Actual petroleum fuels can vary from this relationship due to non-hydrocarbon impurities and variations in molecular structure among classes of hydrocarbons. In the absence of more exact information, this empirical relationship offers a good indication of carbon content.

Non-hydrocarbon Impurities

Most fuels contain a certain share of non-hydrocarbon material. This is also primarily true of crude oils and fuel oils. The most common impurity is sulfur, which typically accounts for between 0.5 and 4 percent of the mass of most crude oils, and can form an even higher percentage of heavy fuel oils. Some crude oils and fuel oils also contain appreciable quantities of oxygen and nitrogen, typically in the form of asphaltenes or various acids. The nitrogen and oxygen content of crude oils can range from near zero to a few percent by weight. Lighter petroleum products have much lower levels of impurities, because the refining process tends to concentrate all of the non-hydrocarbons in the residual oil fraction. Light products usually contain less than 0.5 percent non-hydrocarbons by mass. Thus, the carbon content of heavy fuel oils can often be several percent lower than that of lighter fuels, due entirely to the presence of non-hydrocarbons.

gravity of 22 degrees or below. Intermediate crude oils fall in the range of 22 degrees to 38 degrees API gravity. API gravity can be calculated with the following formula: $\text{API Gravity} = (141.5/\text{Specific Gravity}) - 131.5$. Specific gravity is the density of a material relative to that of water. At standard temperature and pressure, there are 62.36 pounds of water per cubic foot, or 8.337 pounds water per gallon.

Variations in Hydrocarbon Classes

Hydrocarbons can be divided into five general categories, each with a distinctive relationship between density and carbon content and physical properties. Refiners tend to control the mix of hydrocarbon types in particular products in order to give petroleum products distinct properties. The main classes of hydrocarbons are described below.

Paraffins. Paraffins are the most common constituent of crude oil, usually comprising 60 percent by mass. Paraffins are straight-chain hydrocarbons with the general formula C_nH_{2n+2} . Paraffins include ethane (C_2H_6), propane (C_3H_8), butane (C_4H_{10}), and octane (C_8H_{18}). As the chemical formula suggests, the carbon content of the paraffins increases with their carbon number: ethane is 80 percent carbon by weight, octane 84 percent. As the size of paraffin molecules increases, the carbon content approaches the limiting value of 85.7 percent asymptotically (See Figure B-3).

Cycloparaffins. Cycloparaffins are similar to paraffins, except that the carbon molecules form ring structures rather than straight chains, and consequently require two fewer hydrogen molecules than paraffins. Cycloparaffins always have the general formula C_nH_{2n} and are 85.7 percent carbon by mass, regardless of molecular size.

Olefins. Olefins are a reactive and unstable form of paraffin: a straight chain with the two hydrogen atoms at each end of the chain missing. They are never found in crude oil but are created in moderate quantities by the refining process. Thus, gasoline, for example, may contain 2 percent olefins. They also have the general formula C_nH_{2n} , and hence are also always 85.7 percent carbon by weight. Propylene (C_3H_6), a common intermediate petrochemical product, is an olefin.

Aromatics. Aromatics are very reactive hydrocarbons that are relatively uncommon in crude oil (10 percent or less). Light aromatics increase the octane level in gasoline, and consequently are deliberately created by steam reforming of naphtha. Aromatics also take the form of ring structures with some double bonds between carbon atoms. The most common aromatics are benzene (C_6H_6), toluene (C_7H_8), and xylene (C_8H_{10}). The general formula for aromatics is C_nH_{2n-6} . Benzene is 92 percent carbon by mass, while xylene is 90.6 percent carbon by mass. Unlike the other hydrocarbon families, the carbon content of aromatics declines asymptotically toward 85.7 percent with increasing carbon number and density. (See Figure B-3)

Polynuclear Aromatics. Polynuclear aromatics are large molecules with a multiple ring structure and few hydrogen atoms, such as naphthalene ($C_{10}H_8$ and 94.4 percent carbon by mass) and anthracene ($C_{14}H_{10}$ and 97.7 percent carbon). They are relatively rare but do appear in heavier petroleum products.

Figure B-3 illustrates the share of carbon by weight for each class of hydrocarbon. Hydrocarbon molecules containing 2 to 4 carbon atoms are all natural gas liquids; hydrocarbons with 5 to 10 carbon atoms are predominantly found in naphtha and gasoline; and hydrocarbon compounds with 12 to 20 carbons comprise "middle distillates," which are used to make diesel fuel, kerosene and jet fuel. Larger molecules are generally used as lubricants, waxes, and residual fuel oil.

Figure B-3. Carbon Content of Pure Hydrocarbons as a Function of Carbon Number

Source: Hunt (1979).

If one knows nothing about the composition of a particular petroleum product, assuming that it is 85.7 percent carbon by mass is not an unreasonable first approximation. Since denser products have higher carbon numbers, this guess would be most likely to be correct for crude oils and fuel oils. The carbon content of lighter products is more affected by the shares of paraffins and aromatics in the blend.

Energy Content of Petroleum Products

The exact energy content (gross heat of combustion) of petroleum products is not generally known. EIA estimates energy consumption in Btu on the basis of a set of industry-standard conversion factors. These conversion factors are generally accurate to within 3 to 5 percent.

Individual Petroleum Products

The United States maintains data on the consumption of more than 20 separate petroleum products and product categories. The carbon contents, heat contents, and density for each product are provided below in Table B-6. A description of the methods and data sources for estimating the key parameters for each individual petroleum product appears below.

Table B-6. Carbon Content Coefficients and Underlying Data for Petroleum Products

Fuel	2001 Carbon Content (Tg/QBtu)	Gross Heat of Combustion (MMBtu/Barrel)	Density (API Gravity)	Percent Carbon
Motor Gasoline	19.34	5.253	59.6	86.60
LPG	16.99	a	a	a
Jet Fuel	19.33	5.670	42.0	86.30
Distillate Fuel	19.95	5.825	35.5	86.34
Residual Fuel	21.49	6.287	11.0	85.68
Asphalt and Road Oil	20.62	6.636	5.6	83.47
Lubricants	20.24	6.065	25.6	85.80
Petrochemical Feedstocks	19.37	5.248 ^b	67.1 ^b	84.11 ^b
Aviation Gas	18.87	5.048	69.0	85.00
Kerosene	19.72	5.670	41.4	86.01
Petroleum Coke	27.85	6.024	-	92.28
Special Naphtha	19.86	5.248	51.2	84.76
Petroleum Waxes	19.81	5.537	43.3	85.29
Still Gas	17.51	6.000	-	-
Crude Oil	20.29	5.800	30.5	85.49
Unfinished Oils	20.29	5.825	30.5	85.49
Miscellaneous Products	20.29	5.796	30.5	85.49
Pentanes Plus	18.24	4.620	81.7	83.70
Natural Gasoline	18.24	4.620	81.7	83.70

a LPG is a blend of multiple paraffinic hydrocarbons: ethane, propane, isobutane, and normal butane, each with their own heat content, density and carbon content, see Table B-9.

b Parameters presented are for naphthas with a boiling temperature less than 400 degrees Fahrenheit. Petrochemical feedstocks with higher boiling points are assumed to have the same characteristics as distillate fuel.

- No sample data available

Sources: EIA (1994) and SAIC (2002).

Step 2. Develop carbon content coefficients for each grade and type

Carbon content coefficients for each grade and type are derived from three parameters: gasoline density, share of the gasoline mixture that is carbon; and the energy content of a gallon of gasoline. Carbon content coefficients for reformulated fuels were calculated by applying the carbon content coefficient for the fuel additives listed in Table B-8 to the increased share of reformulated gasoline represented by these additives (standard gasoline contains small amounts of MTBE and TAME) and weighting the gasoline carbon content accordingly.

Step 3. Weight overall gasoline carbon content coefficient for consumption of each grade and type

The carbon content for each grade and type of fuel is multiplied by the share of overall consumption that the grade and fuel type represent. Individual coefficients are then summed and totaled to yield an overall carbon content coefficient.

Data Sources

Data for the density of motor gasoline was obtained from the National Institute for Petroleum and Energy Research, *Motor Gasolines, Summer* and *Motor Gasolines, Winter* (1990 through 2002).

Data on the characteristics of reformulated gasoline was taken from the American Petroleum Institute, *Alcohols and Ethers: A Technical Assessment of Their Applications as Fuels and Fuel Components*, API 4261 (1988).

Data on the carbon content of motor gasoline was obtained from the following:

- Mark DeLuchi, *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases from the Use of Transportation Fuels and Electricity*, Volume 2, ANL/ESD/TM-22, Vol. 2 (November 1993), Appendix C, pp. C-1 to C-8.
- Ultimate analysis of one sample of shale-oil derived gasoline from Applied Systems Corp., *Compilation of Oil Shale Test Results* (April 1976), p. 3-2.
- Ultimate analysis of samples of three varieties of gasoline from C.C. Ward, "Petroleum and Other liquid Fuels," in *Marks' Standard Handbook for Mechanical Engineers* (1978), pp. 7-14.
- Ultimate analysis of one sample of gasoline from J.W. Rose and J.R. Cooper, *Technical Data on Fuel*, The British National Committee, World Energy Conference, London, England (1977).

Standard heat contents for motor gasoline of 5.253 MMBtu per barrel conventional gasoline and 5.150 MMBtu per barrel reformulated gasoline were adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at: <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

There are two primary contributors to the uncertainty of carbon content coefficients for motor gasoline. The first is the small number of motor gasoline samples and ultimate analyses from Deluchi, et al. However, as demonstrated above in Figure B-3, the amount of variation in carbon content of gasoline is restricted by the compounds in the fuel to ± 4 percent.

The second primary contributor to uncertainty is the assumed heat content. The heat contents are industry standards established many years ago. The heat contents are standard conversion factors used by EIA to convert volumetric energy data to energy units. Because the heat contents of fuels change over time, without necessarily and directly altering their volume, the conversion of known volumetric data to energy units may introduce bias. Thus, a more precise approach to estimating emissions factors would be to calculate carbon content per unit of volume, rather than per unit of energy. Adopting this approach, however, makes it difficult to compare U.S. carbon content coefficients with those of other nations.

The changes in density of motor gasoline over the last decade suggest that the heat content of the fuels is also changing. However, that change within any season grade has been less than 1 percent over the decade. Of greater concern is the use of a standardized heat content across grades which show a variation in density of ± 1.5 percent.

Jet Fuel

Jet fuel is a refined petroleum product used in jet aircraft engines. There are two classes of jet fuel used in the United States: “naphtha-based” jet fuels and “kerosene-based” jet fuels. In 1989, 13 percent of U.S. consumption was naphtha-based fuel, with the remainder kerosene-based jet fuel. In 1993, the U.S. Department of Defense began a conversion from naphtha-based JP-4 jet fuel to kerosene-based jet fuel, because of the possibility of increased demand for reformulated motor gasoline limiting refinery production of naphtha-based jet fuel. By 1996, naphtha-based jet fuel represented less than one-half of one percent of all jet fuel consumption. The carbon content coefficient for jet fuel used in this report represents a consumption-weighted combination of the naphtha-based and kerosene-based coefficients.

Methodology

Step 1. Estimate the carbon content for naphtha-based jet fuels

Because naphtha-based jet fuels are used on a limited basis in the United States, sample data on its characteristics are limited. The density of naphtha-based jet fuel (49 degrees) was estimated as the central point of the acceptable API gravity range published by ASTM. The heat content of the fuel was assumed to be 5.355 MMBtu per barrel based on EIA industry standards. The carbon fraction was derived from an estimated hydrogen content of 14.1 percent (Martel and Angello 1977), and an estimated content of sulfur and other non-hydrocarbons of 0.1 percent.

Step 2. Estimate the carbon content for kerosene-based jet fuels

The density and carbon share of kerosene-based jet fuels was based on the average composition of 39 fuel samples taken by Boeing Corporation (the leading U.S. commercial airline manufacturer) in 1989. The EIA’s standard heat content of 5.67 MMBtu per barrel was adopted for kerosene-based jet fuel.

Step 3. Weight the overall jet fuel carbon content coefficient for consumption of each type of fuel

The carbon content for each jet fuel type is multiplied by the share of overall consumption of that fuel type. Individual coefficients are then summed and totaled to yield an overall carbon content coefficient

Data Sources

Data on the carbon content of naphtha-based jet fuel was taken from C.R. Martel and L.C. Angello, “Hydrogen Content as a Measure of the Combustion Performance of Hydrocarbon Fuels,” in *Current Research in Petroleum Fuels*, Volume I (1977), p. 116.

Data on the density of naphtha-based jet fuel was taken from the American Society for Testing and Materials, *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985), p. 60.

Standard heat contents for kerosene- and naphtha- based jet fuels were adopted from EIA’s *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Data on the carbon content and density of kerosene-based jet fuel was taken from O.J. Hadaller and A.M. Momentny, *The Characteristics of Future Fuels*, Part 1, “Conventional Heat Fuels” (September 1990), pp. 46-50.

Uncertainty

Variability in jet fuel is relatively small with the average carbon share of kerosene-based jet fuel varying by less than ± 1 percent and the density varying by ± 1 percent. This is because the ratio of fuel mass to useful energy must be tightly bounded to maximize safety and range. There is more uncertainty associated with the density and carbon share of naphtha-based jet fuel because sample data were unavailable and default values were used. This uncertainty has only a small impact on the overall uncertainty of the carbon content coefficient for jet fuels, however, because naphtha-based jet fuel represents a small and declining share of total jet fuel consumption in the United States.

Distillate Fuel

Distillate fuel is a general classification for diesel fuels and fuel oils. Products known as No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 diesel fuel are used in on-highway diesel engines, such as those in trucks and automobiles, as well as off-

highway engines, such as those in railroad locomotives and agricultural machinery. No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 fuel oils are also used for space heating and electric power generation.

Methodology

For the purposes of this report, the carbon content of No. 2 fuel oil is assumed to typify the carbon content of distillate fuel generally. The carbon share in No. 2 fuel oil was estimated based on the average of 11 ultimate analyses. This carbon share was combined with EIA's standard heat content of 5.825 MMBtu per barrel and the density of distillate assumed to be 35.5 degrees API, in accord with its heat content.

Data Sources

Data on the carbon contents and density was derived from four samples from C. T. Hare and R.L. Bradow, "Characterization of Heavy-Duty Diesel Gaseous and Particulate Emissions, and the Effects of Fuel Composition," in Society of Automotive Engineers, *The Measurement and Control of Diesel Particulate Emissions* (1979), p. 128.

Three samples from E.F. Funkenbush, D.G. Leddy, and J.H. Johnson, "The Organization of the Soluble Organic Fraction of Diesel Particulate Matter," in Society of Automotive Engineers, *The Measurement and Control of Diesel Particulate Emissions* (1979), p. 128.

One sample from R.L. Mason, "Developing Prediction Equations for Fuels and Lubricants," SAE Paper 811218, p.34 (1981).

One sample from C.T. Hare, K.J. Springer, and R.L. Bradow, "Fuel and Additive Effects on Diesel Particulate- Development and Demonstration of Methodology," in Society of Automotive Engineers, *The Measurement and Control of Diesel Particulate Emissions* (1979), p. 179.

One Sample from F. Black and L. High, "Methodology for Determining Particulate and Gaseous Diesel Emissions," in Society of Automotive Engineers, *The Measurement and Control of Diesel Particulate Emissions* (1979), p. 128.

A standard heat content was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

The primary source of uncertainty for the estimated carbon content of distillate fuel is the selection of No.2 fuel oil as the typical distillate fuel. No.2 fuel oil is generally consumed for home heating. No.1 fuel oil is generally less dense and if it is consumed in large portions for mobile sources, the carbon content estimated for this report is likely to be too high. The five No.1 fuel oil samples obtained by EIA contained an average of 86.01 percent carbon compared to the 86.34 percent contained in samples of No.2 fuel oil. A carbon content coefficient based on No.1 fuel oil would equal 19.72 Tg/QBtu rather than the 19.95 Tg/QBtu for No.2 fuel oil. There is also small uncertainty in the share of carbon based on the limited sample size of ± 1 percent.

Residual Fuel

Residual fuel is a general classification for the heavier oils, known as No. 5 and No. 6 fuel oils, that remain after the distillate fuel oils and lighter hydrocarbons are distilled away in refinery operations. Residual fuel conforms to ASTM Specifications D 396 and D 975 and Federal Specification VV-F-815C. No. 5, a residual fuel oil of medium viscosity, is also known as Navy Special and is defined in Military Specification MIL-F-859E, including Amendment 2 (NATO Symbol F-770). It is used in steam-powered vessels in government service and inshore power plants. No. 6 fuel oil includes Bunker C fuel oil and is used for the production of electric power, space heating, vessel bunkering, and various industrial purposes.

In the United States, electric utilities purchase about a third of the residual oil consumed. A somewhat larger share is used for vessel bunkering, and the balance is used in the commercial and industrial sectors. The residual oil (defined as No.6 fuel oil) consumed by electric utilities has an energy content of 6.287 MMBtu per barrel and an average sulfur content of 1 percent (EIA 2001b). This implies a density of about 17 degrees API.

Methodology

For this report, residual fuel was defined as No.6 fuel oil. The National Institute of Petroleum and Energy Research, Fuel Oil Survey shows an average density for fuel oil of 11.3 API gravity and anecdotal evidence suggests that marine residual fuel is also very dense, with typical gravity of 10.5 to 11.5 degrees API (EIA 1993). Because the largest share of fuel oil consumption is for marine vessels, a density of 11 degrees API was adopted when developing the carbon content coefficient for this report. An average share of carbon in residual fuel of 85.67 percent by mass was used based on ultimate analyses of a dozen samples.

Data Sources

Data on carbon content was derived from three samples of residual fuel from the Middle East and one sample from Texas. These data were found in F. Mosby, G.B. Hoekstra, T.A. Kleinhenz, and J.M. Sokra, “Pilot Plant Proves Resid Process,” in *Chemistry of Petroleum Processing and Extraction* (1976), p.227.

Three samples of heavy fuel oils from J.P. Longwell, “Interface Between Fuels and Combustion,” in *Fossil Fuel Combustion: A Sourcebook* (1991).

Three samples of heavy fuel oils from C.C. Ward, “Petroleum and Other Liquid Fuels,” in *Marks' Standard Handbook for Mechanical Engineers* (1978), pp. 7-14.

Two samples of heavy fuel oils from, D.A. Vorum, “Fuel and Synthesis Gases from Gaseous and Liquid Hydrocarbons,” in American Gas Association, *Gas Engineer's Handbook* (1974), p. 3/71.

One sample of heavy fuel oil from W. Rose and J.R. Cooper, *Technical Data on Fuel*, The British National Committee, World Energy Conference, London, England (1977).

Density of residual fuel consumed for electric power generation was obtained from EIA’s *Cost and Quality of Fuels*, (2001b). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/cneaf/electricity/cq/cq_sum.html>.

Density of residual fuel consumed in marine vessels from EIA’s Petroleum Supply Division, *Btu Tax on Finished Petroleum Products* (1993) and National Institute for Petroleum and Energy Research’s *Fuel Oil Surveys* (1992).

A standard heat content was adopted from EIA’s *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

The largest source of uncertainty for estimating the carbon content of residual fuel centers on the estimates of density, which differ from power generation to marine vessel fuels. The difference between the density implied by the energy content of utility fuels and the density observed in the NIPER surveys is probably due to nonsulfur impurities, which reduce the energy content without greatly affecting the density of the product. Impurities of several percent are commonly observed in residual oil. The presence of these impurities also affects the share of the fuel that is carbon. Overall, the uncertainty associated with the carbon content of residual fuel is probably ± 1 percent.

Liquefied Petroleum Gases (LPG)

EIA identifies four categories of paraffinic hydrocarbons as LPG: ethane, propane, isobutane, and n-butane. Because each of these compounds is a pure paraffinic hydrocarbon, their carbon shares are easily derived by taking into account the atomic weight of carbon (12) and the atomic weight of hydrogen (1). Thus, for example, the carbon share of propane, C₃H₈, is 81.8 percent. The densities and heat content of the compounds are also well known allowing carbon content coefficients to be calculated directly. Table B-9 summarizes the physical characteristic of LPG.

Table B-9. Physical Characteristics of Liquefied Petroleum Gases

Compound	Chemical Formula	Density (Barrels Per Metric Ton)	Carbon Content (Percent)	Energy Content (MMBtu/Barrel)	Carbon Content Coefficient (Tg/QBtu)
Ethane	C ₂ H ₆	16.88	80.0	2.916	16.25
Propane	C ₃ H ₈	12.44	81.8	3.824	17.20
Isobutane	C ₄ H ₁₀	11.20	82.8	4.162	17.75
n-butane	C ₄ H ₁₀	10.79	82.8	4.328	17.72

Aviation Gasoline

Aviation gasoline is used in piston-powered airplane engines. It is a complex mixture of relatively volatile hydrocarbons with or without small quantities of additives, blended to form a fuel suitable for use in aviation reciprocating engines. Fuel specifications are provided in ASTM Specification D 910 and Military Specification MIL-G-5572. Aviation gas is a relatively minor contributor to greenhouse gas emissions compared to other petroleum products, representing approximately 0.1 percent of all consumption.

The ASTM standards for boiling and freezing points in aviation gasoline effectively limit the aromatics content to a maximum of 25 percent (ASTM D910). Because weight is critical in the operation of an airplane, aviation gas must have as many Btu per pound (implying a lower density) as possible, given other requirements of piston engines such as high anti-knock quality.

Methodology

A carbon content coefficient for aviation gasoline was calculated on the basis of the EIA standard heat content of 5.048 MMBtu per barrel. This implies a density of approximately 69 degrees API gravity or 5.884 pounds per gallon. To estimate the share of carbon in the fuel, it was assumed that aviation gasoline is 87.5 percent iso-octane, 9.0 percent toluene, and 3.5 percent xylene. The maximum allowable sulfur content in aviation gasoline is 0.05 percent, and the maximum allowable lead content is 0.1 percent. These amounts were judged negligible and excluded for the purposes of this analysis. This yielded a carbon share of 85 percent and a carbon content coefficient of 18.87 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

Data sources include American Society for Testing and Materials, *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985).

A standard heat content for aviation gas was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (July 2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

The uncertainty associated with the carbon content coefficient for aviation gasoline is larger than that for other liquid petroleum products examined because no ultimate analyses of samples are available. Given the requirements for safe operation of piston-powered aircraft the composition of aviation gas is well bounded and the uncertainty of the carbon content coefficient is likely to be ± 5 percent.

Still Gas

Still gas, or refinery gas is composed of light hydrocarbon gases that are released as petroleum is processed in a refinery. The composition of still gas is highly variable, depending primarily on the nature of the refining process and secondarily on the composition of the product being processed. Petroleum refineries produce still gas from many different processes. Still gas can be used as a fuel or feedstock within the refinery, sold as a petrochemical feedstock, or purified and sold as pipeline-quality natural gas. In general, still gas tends to include large amounts of free hydrogen and methane, as well as smaller amounts of heavier hydrocarbons. Because different refinery operations result in different gaseous byproducts, it is difficult to determine what represents typical still gas.

Methodology

The EIA obtained data on four samples of still gas. Table B-11 below shows the composition of those samples.

Table B-11. Composition, Energy Content, and Carbon Content Coefficient for Four Samples of Still Gas

Sample	Hydrogen (%)	Methane (%)	Ethane (%)	Propane (%)	Btu Per Cubic Foot	Carbon Content (Tg/QBtu)
One	12.7	28.1	17.1	11.9	1,388	17.51
Two	34.7	20.5	20.5	6.7	1,143	14.33
Three	72.0	12.8	10.3	3.8	672	10.23
Four	17.0	31.0	16.2	2.4	1,100	15.99

Because gas streams with a large free hydrogen content are likely to be used as refinery or chemical feedstocks, EIA selected the carbon content coefficient from the sample with the lowest hydrogen content as the representative value for still gas.

Data Sources

One still gas sample from American Gas Association, *Gas Engineer's Handbook* (1974), pp. 3/71, 3.87.

Three still gas samples from C.R. Guerra, K. Kelton, and D.C. Nielsen, Natural Gas Supplementation with Refinery Gases and Hydrogen,” in Institute of Gas Technology, *New Fuels and Advances in Combustion Technologies* (1979).

Uncertainty

Because the composition of still gas is highly heterogeneous, the carbon content coefficient for this product is highly uncertain, with an accuracy of ± 33 percent. The carbon content coefficient used for this report is probably at the high end of the plausible range.

Asphalt

Asphalt is used to pave roads. Because most of its carbon is retained in those roads, it is a small source of emissions. It is derived from a class of hydrocarbons called "asphaltenes," abundant in some crude oils but not in others. Asphaltenes have oxygen and nitrogen atoms bound into their molecular structure, so that they tend to have lower carbon contents than other hydrocarbons.

Methodology

Ultimate analyses of twelve samples of asphalts showed an average carbon content of 83.5 percent. The EIA standard Btu content for asphalt of 6.636 MMBtu per barrel was assumed. The ASTM petroleum measurement tables show a density of 5.6 degrees API or 8.605 pounds per gallon for asphalt. Together, these variables generate carbon content coefficient of 20.62 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

A standard heat content for asphalt was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

The density of asphalt was determined by the American Society for Testing and Materials, in *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985).

Uncertainty

The share of carbon in asphalt ranges from 79 to 88 percent by weight. Also present in the mixture are hydrogen and sulfur, with shares by weight ranging from seven to 13 percent for hydrogen, and from trace levels to eight percent for sulfur. Because carbon share and total heat content in asphalts do vary systematically, the overall carbon content coefficient is likely to be accurate to ± 5 percent.

Lubricants

Lubricants are substances used to reduce friction between bearing surfaces, or incorporated into processing materials used in the manufacture of other products, or used as carriers of other materials. Petroleum lubricants may be produced either from distillates or residues. Lubricants include all grades of lubricating oils, from spindle oil to cylinder oil to those used in greases. Lubricant consumption is dominated by motor oil for automobiles, but there is a large range of product compositions and end uses within this category.

Methodology

The ASTM Petroleum Measurement tables give the density of lubricants at 25.6 degrees API. Ultimate analysis of a single sample of motor oil yielded a carbon content of 85.8 percent. A standard heat content of 6.065 MMBtu per barrel was adopted from EIA. These factors produce a carbon content coefficient of 20.24 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

A standard heat content was adopted from the EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

The density of asphalt was determined by the American Society for Testing and Materials in *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985).

Uncertainty

Uncertainty in the estimated carbon content coefficient for lubricants is driven by the large range of product compositions and end uses in this category combined with an inability to establish the shares of the various products captured under this category in U.S. energy statistics. Because lubricants may be produced from either the distillate or residual fractions during refineries, the possible carbon content coefficients range from just under 20.0 Tg/QBtu to about 21.5 Tg/QBtu or an uncertainty band from -1 percent to +6 percent of the estimated value.

Petrochemical Feedstocks

U.S. energy statistics distinguish between two different kinds of petrochemical feedstocks: those with a boiling temperature below 400 degrees Fahrenheit, generally called "naphtha," and those with a boiling temperature 400 degrees Fahrenheit and above.

Methodology

The method for estimating the carbon content of petrochemical feedstocks includes three steps.

Step 1. Estimate the carbon content coefficient for naphtha

Because reformed naphtha is used to make motor gasoline (hydrogen is released to raise aromatics content and octane rating), "straight-run" naphtha is assumed to be used as a petrochemical feedstock. Ultimate analyses of five samples of naphtha were examined and showed an average carbon share of 84.11 percent and an average density of 67.1 degrees API gravity. The standard EIA heat content of 5.248 MMBtu per barrel is used to estimate a carbon content coefficient of 18.14 Tg/QBtu.

Step 2. Estimate the carbon content coefficient for petrochemical feedstocks with a boiling temperature 400 degrees Fahrenheit and above

The boiling temperature of this product places it into the "middle distillate" fraction in the refining process, and EIA estimates that these petrochemical feedstocks have the same heat content as distillate fuel. Thus, the carbon content coefficient of 19.95 Tg/Btu used for distillate fuel is also adopted for this portion of petrochemical feedstocks.

Step 3. Weight the carbon content coefficients for the two classes of petrochemical feedstock by consumption

The weighted average of the two carbon content coefficients for petroleum feedstocks equals 19.37 Tg/Btu.

Data Sources

Data on the carbon content and density of naphtha was taken from G.H. Unzelman, "A Sticky Point for Refiners: FCC Gasoline and the Complex Model," *Fuel Reformulation* (July/August 1992), p. 29.

A standard heat content for petrochemical feedstock was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

Petrochemical feedstocks are not so much distinguished on the basis of chemical composition as on the identity of the purchaser, who may be presumed to be a chemical company or a petrochemical unit co-located on the refinery grounds. This produces a considerable degree of uncertainty about the exact composition of petrochemical feedstocks. Since the carbon content coefficient for petrochemical feedstocks is a weighted average of the coefficients for naphtha and some class of middle distillates, the accurate coefficient is likely bounded by the two individual coefficients, suggesting an uncertainty of ± 6 percent.

Kerosene

A light petroleum distillate that is used in space heaters, cook stoves, and water heaters and is suitable for use as a light source when burned in wick-fed lamps, kerosene is drawn from the same petroleum fraction as jet fuel. Kerosene is generally comparable to No.1 fuel oil.

Methodology

The average density of 41.4 degrees API and average carbon share of 86.01 percent found in five ultimate analyses of No. 1 fuel oil samples were applied to a standard heat content of 5.67 MMBtu per barrel to yield a carbon content coefficient of 19.72 Tg/Btu.

Data Sources

A standard heat content was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

Uncertainty in the estimated carbon content for kerosene is driven by the selection of No. 1 fuel oil as a proxy for kerosene. If kerosene is more like kerosene-based jet fuel, the true carbon content coefficient is likely to be some 2 percent lower. If kerosene is more aptly compared to No. 2 fuel oil, then the true carbon content coefficient is likely to be about 1 percent higher.

Petroleum Coke

Petroleum coke is the solid residue by-product of the extensive processing of crude oil. It is a coal-like solid, usually with a carbon content greater than 90 percent, that is used as a boiler fuel and industrial raw material.

Methodology

Ultimate analyses of two samples of petroleum coke showed an average carbon share of 92.3 percent. The ASTM standard density of 9.543 pounds per gallon was adopted and the EIA standard energy content of 6.024 MMBtu per barrel assumed. Together, these factors produced an estimated carbon content coefficient of 27.85 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

Carbon content was derived from two samples from S. W. Martin, "Petroleum Coke," in Virgil Guthrie (ed.), *Petroleum Processing Handbook* (1960), pp. 14-15.

The density of petroleum coke was taken from the American Society for Testing and Materials, *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985).

A standard heat content for petroleum coke was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

The uncertainty associated with the estimated carbon content coefficient of petroleum coke can be traced to two factors: the use of only two samples to establish carbon contents and a standard heat content which may be too low. Together, these uncertainties are likely to bias the carbon content coefficient upwards by as much as 6 percent.

Special Naphtha

Special naphtha is defined as a light petroleum product to be used for solvent applications, including commercial hexane and four classes of solvent: stoddard solvent, used in dry cleaning; high flash point solvent, used as an industrial paint because of its slow evaporative characteristics; odorless solvent, most often used for residential paints; and high solvency mineral spirits, used for architectural finishes. These products differ in both density and carbon percentage, requiring the development of multiple coefficients.

Methodology

The method for estimating the carbon content coefficient of special naphtha includes three steps.

Step 1. Estimate the carbon content coefficient for hexane

Hexane is a pure paraffin containing 6 carbon atoms and 14 hydrogen atoms. Thus, it is 83.7 percent carbon. Its density is 76.6 degrees API or 5.649 pounds per gallon and its derived carbon content coefficient is 17.17 Tg/QBtu.

Step 2. Estimate the carbon contents of non-hexane special naphthas

The hydrocarbon compounds in special naphthas are assumed to be either paraffinic or aromatic (see discussion above). The portion of aromatics in odorless solvents is estimated at less than 1 percent, Stoddard and high flash point solvents contain 15 percent aromatics and high solvency mineral spirits contain 30 percent aromatics (Boldt and Hall, 1977). These assumptions, when combined with the relevant densities, yield the carbon content factors contained in Table B-12 below.

Table B-12. Characteristics of Non-hexane Special Naphthas

Special Naphtha	Aromatic Content (Percent)	Density (Degrees API)	Carbon Content (Percent)	Carbon Content (Tg/Btu)
Odorless Solvent	1	55.0	84.51	19.41
Stoddard Solvent	15	47.9	84.44	20.11
High Flash Point	15	47.6	84.70	20.17
Mineral Spirits	30	43.6	85.83	20.99

Step 3. Develop weighted carbon content coefficient based on consumption of each special naphtha

EIA reports only a single consumption figure for special naphtha. The carbon contents of the five special naphthas are weighted according to the following formula: approximately 10 percent of all special naphtha consumed is hexane; the remaining 90 percent is assumed to be distributed evenly among the four other solvents. The resulting emissions coefficient for special naphthas is 19.86 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

A standard heat content for special naphtha was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html.

Density and aromatic contents were adopted from K. Boldt and B.R. Hall, *Significance of Tests for Petroleum Products*, American Society for Testing and Materials (1977), p. 30.

Uncertainty

The principal uncertainty associated with the estimated carbon content coefficient for special naphtha is the allocation of overall consumption across individual solvents. The overall uncertainty is bounded on the low end by the carbon content of hexane and on the upper end by the carbon content of high solvency mineral spirits. This implies an uncertainty band of -15 percent to + 6 percent.

Petroleum Waxes

The ASTM standards define petroleum wax as a product separated from petroleum that is solid or semi-solid at 77 degrees Fahrenheit (25 degrees Celsius). The two classes of petroleum wax are paraffin waxes and microcrystalline waxes. They differ in the number of carbon atoms and the type of hydrocarbon compounds. Microcrystalline waxes have longer carbon chains and more variation in their chemical bonds than paraffin waxes.

Methodology

The method for estimating the carbon content coefficient for petroleum waxes includes three steps.

Step 1. Estimate the carbon content of paraffin waxes

For the purposes of this analysis, paraffin waxes are assumed to be composed of 100 percent paraffinic compounds with a chain of 25 carbon atoms. The resulting carbon share for paraffinic wax is 85.23 percent and the density is estimated at 45 degrees API or 6.684 pounds per gallon.

Step 2. Estimate the carbon content of microcrystalline waxes

Microcrystalline waxes are assumed to consist of 50 percent paraffinic and 50 percent cycloparaffinic compounds with a chain of 40 carbon atoms, yielding a carbon share of 85.56 percent. The density of microcrystalline waxes is estimated at 36.7 degrees API, based on a sample of 10 microcrystalline waxes found in the *Petroleum Products Handbook*.

Step 3. Develop a carbon content coefficient for petroleum waxes by weighting the density and carbon content of paraffinic and microcrystalline waxes

A weighted average density and carbon content was calculated for petroleum waxes, assuming that wax consumption is 80 percent paraffin wax and 20 percent microcrystalline wax. The weighted average carbon content is 85.29 percent, and the weighted average density is 6.75 pounds per gallon. EIA's standard heat content for waxes is 5.537 MMBtu per barrel. These inputs yield a carbon content coefficient for petroleum waxes of 19.81 Tg/QBtu.

Data Sources

Density of paraffin wax was taken from American Society for Testing and Materials, *ASTM and Other Specifications for Petroleum Products and Lubricants* (1985).

Density of microcrystalline waxes was derived from 10 samples found in V. Guthrie (ed.), *Petroleum Products Handbook* (1960).

A standard heat content for petroleum waxes was adopted from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2000*, Appendix A (2001). Available online at <www.eia.doe.gov/emeu/aer/contents.html>.

Uncertainty

Although there is considerable qualitative uncertainty associated with the allocation of petroleum waxes and microcrystalline waxes, the quantitative variation in the carbon contents for all waxes is limited to ± 1 percent because of the nearly uniform relationship between carbon and other elements in petroleum waxes broadly defined.

Crude Oil, Unfinished Oils, and Miscellaneous

U.S. energy statistics include several categories of petroleum products designed to ensure that reported refinery accounts "balance" and cover any "loopholes" in the taxonomy of petroleum products. These categories include crude oil, unfinished oils, and miscellaneous products. Crude oil is rarely consumed directly, miscellaneous products account for less than one percent of oil consumption and unfinished oils are a balancing item that may show negative consumption. For carbon accounting purposes, it was assumed that all these products have the same carbon content as crude oil.

Methodology

EIA reports on the average density and sulfur content of U.S. crude oil purchased by refineries. To develop a method of estimating carbon content based on this information, ultimate analyses of 182 crude oil samples were collected. Within the sample set, carbon content ranged from 82 to 88 percent carbon, but almost all samples fell between 84 percent and 86 percent carbon. The density and sulfur content of the crude oil data were regressed on the carbon content, producing the following equation:

$$\text{Percent Carbon} = 76.99 + (10.19 * \text{Specific Gravity}) + (-0.76 * \text{Sulfur Content})$$

Absent the term representing sulfur content, the equation had an R-squared of only 0.35.⁷ When carbon content was adjusted to exclude sulfur, the R-squared rose to 0.65. While sulfur is the most important nonhydrocarbon impurity, nitrogen and oxygen can also be significant, but they do not seem to be correlated with either density or sulfur content. Restating these results, density accounts for about 35 percent of the variation in carbon content, impurities account for about 30 percent of the variation, and the remaining 35 percent is accounted for by other factors, including (presumably) the degree to which aromatics and polynuclear aromatics are present in the crude oil. Applying this equation to the 2001 crude oil quality data (30.49 degrees API and 1.42 percent sulfur) produces an estimated carbon content of 85.81 percent. Applying the density and carbon content to the EIA standard energy content for crude oil of 5.8 MMBtu per barrel produced an emissions coefficient of 20.29 Tg/QBtu.

⁷ R-squared represents the percentage of variation in the dependent variable (in this case carbon content) explained by variation in the independent variables.

assumed to have the characteristics of hexane—in the mix of compounds broadly described as LPG. In 1995, EIA removed pentanes plus from this fuel category. Because pentanes plus is relatively rich in carbon per unit of energy, its removal from the consumption mix lowered the carbon content coefficient for LPG from 17.26 Tg/QBtu to 17.02 Tg/QBtu. In 1998, EIA began separating LPG consumption into two categories: energy use and non-fuel use and providing individual coefficients for each. Because LPG for fuel use typically contains higher proportions of propane than LPG for non-fuel use, the carbon content coefficient for fuel use is about 2 percent higher than the coefficient for non-fuel use.

Motor Gasoline

The carbon content coefficient for motor gasoline varies annually based on the density of and proportion of additives in a representative sample of motor gasoline examined each year. However, in 1997 EIA began incorporating the effects of the introduction of reformulated gasoline into its estimate of carbon content coefficients for motor gasoline. This change resulted in a downward step function in carbon content coefficients for gasoline of approximately 0.3 percent beginning in 1995.

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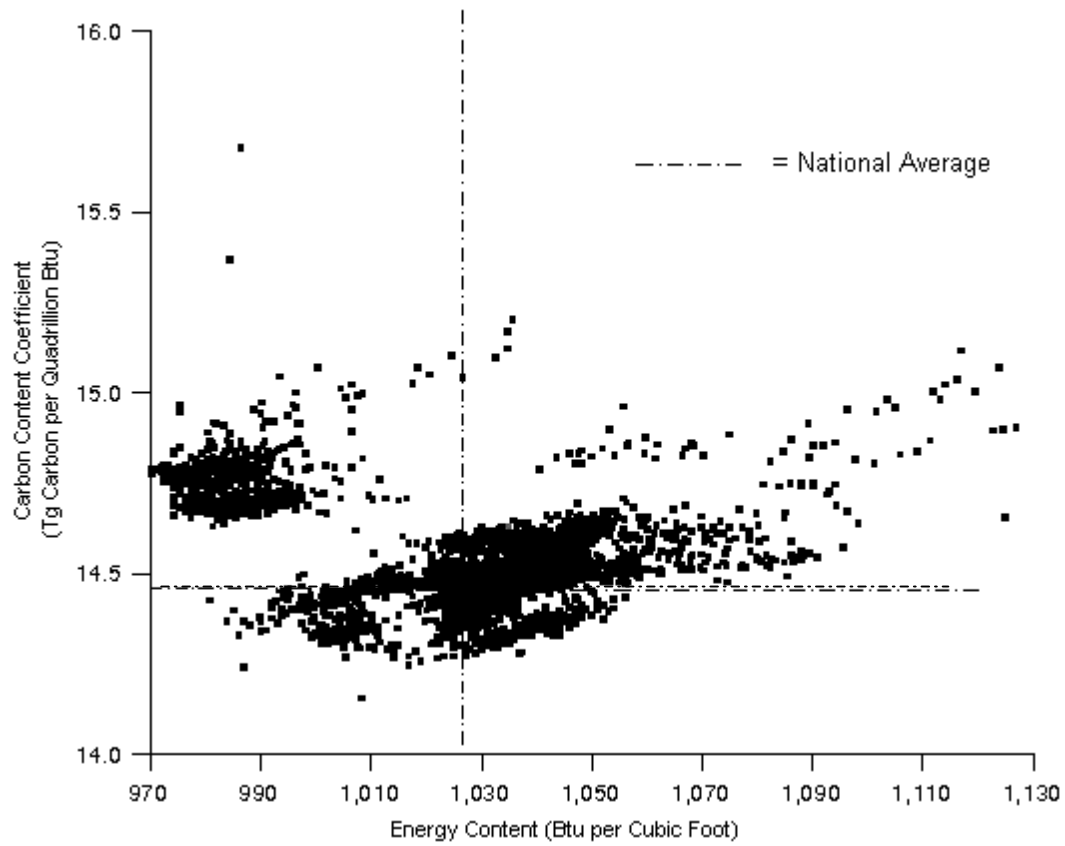
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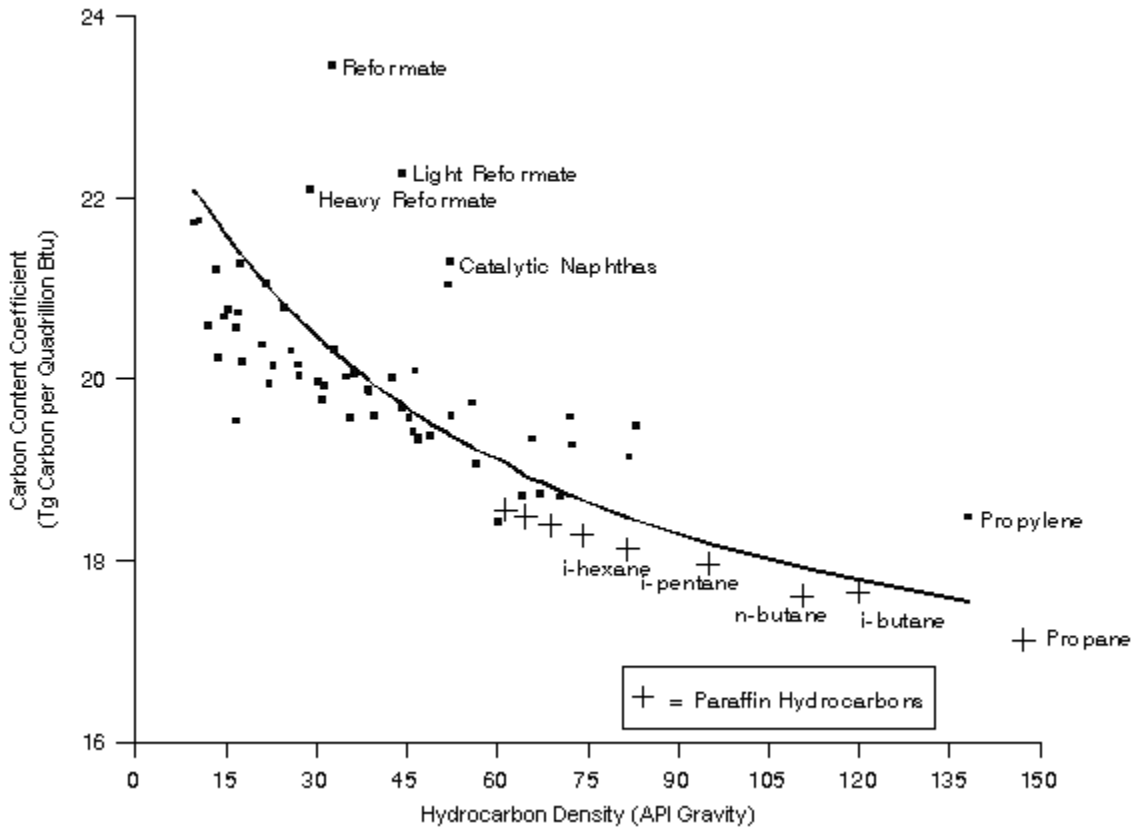
1 **Figure B-1: Carbon Content for Samples of Pipeline-Quality Natural Gas Included in the Gas Technology Institute**
2 **(Formerly Gas Research Institute) Database**



3
4 Source: EIA (1994) Energy Information Administration, Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 1987-1992, U.S. Department of
5 Energy, Washington, DC, November, 1994, DOE/EIA 0573, Appendix A.
6

7

1 **Figure B-2. Estimated and Actual Relationships Between Petroleum Carbon Content Coefficients and Hydrocarbon**
 2 **Density**

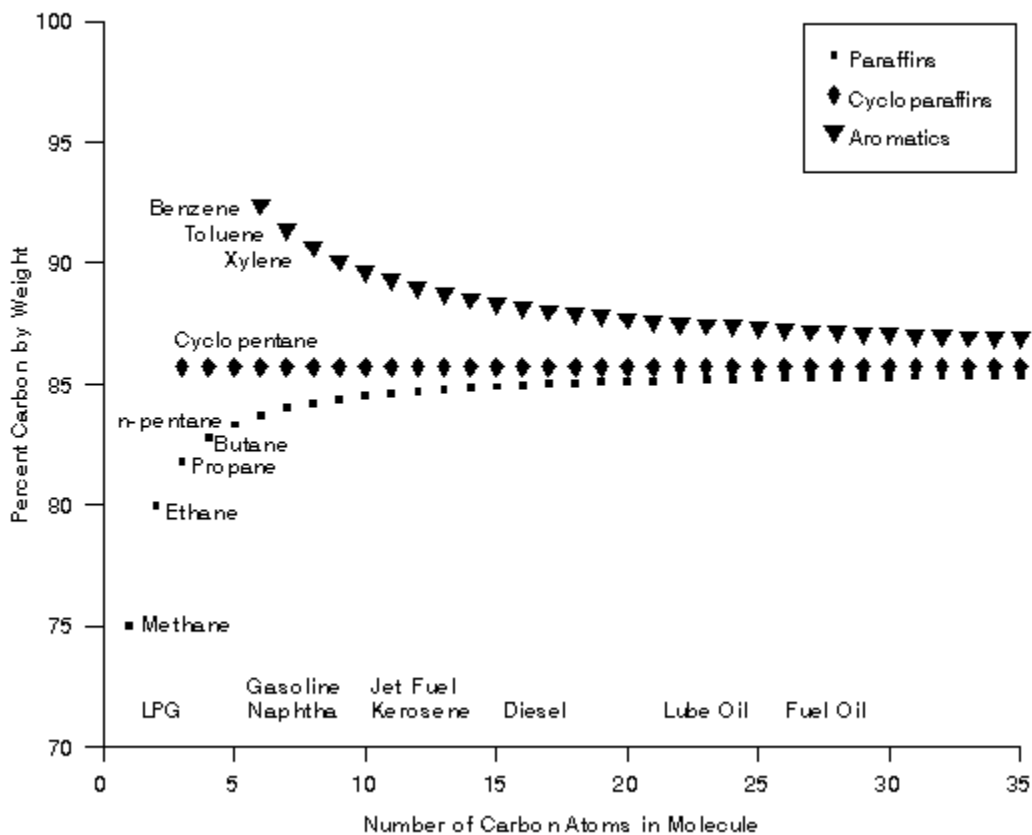


3
 4 Source: Carbon content factors for paraffins are calculated based on the properties of hydrocarbons in V. Guthrie (ed.), *Petroleum Products*
 5 *Handbook* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1960) p. 33. Carbon content factors from other petroleum products are drawn from sources described
 6 below. Relationship between density and emission factors based on the relationship between density and energy content in U.S. Department of
 7 Commerce, National Bureau of Standards, *Thermal Properties of Petroleum Products*, Miscellaneous Publication, No. 97 (Washington, D.C.,
 8 1929), pp.16-21, and relationship between energy content and fuel composition in S. Ringen, J. Lanum, and F.P. Miknis, "Calculating Heating
 9 Values from the Elemental Composition of Fossil Fuels," *Fuel*, Vol. 58 (January 1979), p.69.

10

11

1 **Figure B-3. Carbon Content of Pure Hydrocarbons as a Function of Carbon Number**



2
 3 Source: J.M. Hunt, *Petroleum Geochemistry and Geology* (San Francisco, CA, W.H. Freeman and Company, 1979), pp. 31-37.
 4

ANNEX C

Methodology for Estimating Carbon Stored in Products from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels

Carbon storage associated with the non-energy use of fossil fuels was calculated by multiplying each fuel’s potential emissions (i.e., each fuel’s total carbon content) by a fuel-specific storage factor. This Annex explains the methods and data sources employed in developing the storage factors for asphalt and road oil, lubricants, petrochemical feedstocks, liquefied petroleum gases (LPG), pentanes plus, and natural gas used for chemical manufacturing plant feedstocks (i.e., not used as fuel.) The storage factors for the remaining non-energy fuel uses are based on values reported by Marland and Rotty (1984) and recommended for use by IPCC (1997).

Table C-1: Fuel Types and Percent of Carbon Stored for Non-Energy Uses

Fuel Type	Storage Factor (%)
Industrial Coking Coal ^a	75%
Natural Gas to Chemical Plants	-
Nitrogenous Fertilizers	0%
Other Uses	61%
Asphalt & Road Oil	100%
Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG)	61%
Lubricants	9%
Pentanes Plus	61%
Petrochemical Feedstocks	-
Naphtha (b.p.<401° F)	61%
Other Oil (b.p.>401° F)	61%
Petroleum Coke ^b	50%
Special Naphtha	0%
Other	-
Distillate Fuel Oil	50%
Residual Fuel	50%
Waxes	100%
Miscellaneous Products	100%

- Not applicable

^a Includes processes for which specific coking coal consumption and emission factor data are not available. Consumption of coking coal for production of iron and steel is covered in the Industrial Processes chapter.

^b Includes processes for which specific petroleum coke consumption and emission factor data are not available (e.g., carbon fibers and textiles, refractory, electric motor parts, brake parts, batteries). Consumption of petroleum coke for production of primary aluminum anodes, electric arc furnace anodes, titanium dioxide, and ferroalloys is covered in the Industrial Processes chapter.

The following sections describe the selected non-energy uses in greater detail, outlining the methods employed and data used in estimating each storage factor. Several of the fuel types tracked by EIA—petrochemical feedstocks, pentanes plus, LPG, and natural gas—are used in organic chemical synthesis and in other manufacturing processes. Because the methods and data used to analyze them overlap, they are handled as a group and are discussed first. Discussions of the storage factors for asphalt, road oil and lubricants follow.

Petrochemical Feedstocks, Pentanes Plus, Liquefied Petroleum Gases, and Natural Gas

Petrochemical feedstocks, pentanes plus, liquefied petroleum gases (LPG) and natural gas¹ are used in the manufacture of a wide variety of man-made chemicals and products. Plastics, rubber, synthetic fibers, solvents, paints, fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, and food additives are just a few of the derivatives of these four fuel types. Chemically speaking, these fuels are diverse, ranging from simple natural gas (i.e., predominantly methane, CH₄) to heavier, more complex naphthas and other oils.² The storage factor for petrochemical feedstocks, pentanes plus, LPG, and natural gas used for purposes other than fuel is estimated based on data for the year 1998, which is the latest year for which data are available from several key data sources concerning consumption for non-fuel uses.

The four fuel categories constituted approximately 238.2 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 57 percent, of the 416.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. of non-energy fuel consumption in 1998. Of this amount for the four fuels, 14.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. was exported, resulting in a net U.S. consumption of 223.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1998. Of this net consumption, 136.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. was destined for long-term storage in products—including products subsequently combusted for waste disposal—while the remaining 87.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. was emitted to the atmosphere directly as CO₂ (e.g., through combustion of industrial byproducts) or indirectly as CO₂ precursors (e.g., through evaporative product use). The indirect emissions include a variety of organic gases such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and carbon monoxide (CO), which eventually oxidize into CO₂ in the atmosphere. For 1998 the storage factor for the four fuel categories was 60.9 percent; this factor was assumed to be constant over the 1990 through 2001 period. The derivation of the storage factor is described in the following sections.

Methodology and Data Sources

An empirically determined storage factor was developed for the carbon consumed for non-energy end uses of petrochemical feedstocks, pentanes plus, LPG, and natural gas (henceforth referred to as feedstocks). The storage factor is equal to the ratio of carbon stored in the final products to total carbon content for the non-energy fossil fuel feedstocks used in industrial processes, after adjusting for net exports of feedstocks. One aggregate storage factor was calculated to represent all four fuel feedstock types. The feedstocks were grouped because of the overlap of their derivative products. Due to the many reaction pathways involved in producing petrochemical products (or wastes), it becomes extraordinarily complex to link individual products (or wastes) to their parent fuel feedstocks.

Import and export data for feedstocks were obtained from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) for the major categories of petrochemical feedstocks. EIA's *Petroleum Supply Annual* (EIA 2001c) publication tracks imports and exports of petrochemical feedstocks, including butanes, butylenes, ethane, ethylene, propane, propylene, LPG, and naphthas (i.e., most of the large volume primary chemicals produced by petroleum refineries). These imports and exports are already factored into the U.S. fuel consumption statistics. However, EIA does not track imports and exports of chemical intermediates and products produced by the chemical industry (e.g., xylenes, vinyl chloride, and polypropylene resins), which were derived from the primary chemicals produced by the refineries. These products represent very large flows of carbon derived from fossil fuels (i.e., fossil carbon), so estimates of net flows not already considered in EIA's dataset were developed for the entire time series from 1990 to 2001.

The approach to estimate imports and exports involves three steps:

- Step 1.* Identify commodities derived from petrochemical feedstocks, and calculate net import/export for each.
- Step 2.* Estimate the carbon content for each commodity.
- Step 3.* Sum the net carbon imports/exports across all commodities.

Step 1 relies heavily on information provided by the National Petrochemical and Refiners Association (NPRA) and trade statistics published by the U.S. Bureau of the Census (BoC). NPRA provided a spreadsheet of

¹ Natural gas has two categories of non-energy consumption: for fertilizer and for other chemical syntheses. Only natural gas that is supplied to chemical plants for other uses is included here. Natural gas used for fertilizer is not included because it covered in the Industrial Processes chapter.

² Naphthas are compounds distilled from petroleum containing 4 to 12 carbon atoms per molecule and having a boiling point less than 401° F. Other oils are distillates containing 12 to 25 carbon atoms per molecule and having a boiling point greater than 401° F.

land; the latter is further broken down to disposal in a RCRA Subtitle C (i.e., hazardous waste) landfill or to “Other On-Site Land Disposal.”⁵ The carbon released in each disposal location is provided in Table C-4.

Each on-site classification was assigned a storage factor. A one hundred percent storage factor was applied to disposition of carbon to underground injection and to disposal to RCRA-permitted landfills, while the other disposition categories were assumed to result in an ultimate fate of emission as CO₂ (i.e., a storage factor of zero was applied to these categories.) The release allocation is not reported for off-site releases; therefore, the approach was to develop a carbon-weighted average storage factor for the on-site carbon and apply it to the off-site releases.

For the remaining 10 percent of the TRI releases, the weights of all chemicals were added and an average carbon content value, based upon the top 35 chemicals’ carbon contents, was applied. The storage and emission allocation for the remaining 10 percent of the TRI releases was carried out in the same fashion as for the 35 major chemicals.

Table C-4: 1998 TRI Releases by Disposal Location (Gg CO₂ Eq.)

Disposal Location	Carbon Stored	Carbon Emitted
Air Emissions	-	924.0
Surface Water Discharges	-	6.7
Underground Injection	89.4	-
RCRA Subtitle C Landfill Disposal	1.4	-
Other On-Site Land Releases	-	15.9
Off-site Releases	6.4	36.0
Total	97.2	982.6

- Not applicable

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Volatile Organic Compound Emissions from Industrial Processes and Solvent Evaporation

Data on annual non-methane volatile organic compound (NMVOC) emissions were obtained from the National Air Quality and Emissions Trends Report (EPA 2000b). The report includes information on NMVOC emissions end-use category; some of these fall into the heading of “industrial releases” in Table C-3 above, and others are related to “product use”; for ease of discussion, both are covered here. The end-use categories that represent “Industrial NMVOC Emissions” include chemical and allied products, petroleum and related industries, and other industrial processes. NMVOC emissions from solvent utilization (product use) were considered to be a result of non-energy use of petrochemical feedstocks. These categories were used to distinguish non-energy uses of the four fuel types from energy uses; other categories where VOCs could be emitted due to combustion of fossil fuels were excluded to avoid double counting.

Because solvent evaporation and industrial NMVOC emission data are provided in tons of total NMVOCs, assumptions were made concerning the average carbon content of the NMVOCs for each category of emissions. The assumptions for calculating the carbon fraction of industrial and solvent utilization emissions were made separately and differ significantly. For industrial NMVOC emissions, the carbon content of 85 percent was assumed. This value was chosen to reflect the carbon content of an average volatile organic compound based on the list of the most abundant NMVOCs provided in the Trends Report. The list contains only pure hydrocarbons, including saturated alkanes (carbon contents ranging from 80 to 85 percent based upon carbon number), alkenes (carbon contents equal 85.7 percent), and some aromatics (carbon contents approximately 90 percent, depending upon substitution).

An EPA solvent evaporation emissions dataset (EPA 2000b) was used directly to estimate the carbon content of solvent emissions. The dataset identifies solvent emissions by compound or compound category for six different solvent end-use categories: degreasing, graphic arts, dry cleaning, surface coating, other industrial processes, and non-industrial processes. The percent carbon of each compound identified in the EPA solvent evaporation emissions dataset was calculated based on the molecular formula of the individual compound (e.g., the

⁵ Only the top 9 chemicals had their land releases separated into RCRA Landfills and Other Land Disposal. For the remaining chemicals, it was assumed that the ratio of disposal in these two categories was equal to the carbon-weighted average of the land disposal fate of the top 9 chemicals (i.e., 8 percent attributed to RCRA Landfills and 92 percent in the “Other” category).

attributing the emissions to the year in which the carbon enters the mass balance (i.e., the year in which it leaves refineries as a non-energy fuel use and thus starts being tracked by EIA), this approach has the effect of “front-end loading” the emission profile.

Another cross-cutting source of uncertainty is that the estimate of the balance between storage and emissions is based on data for only for a single year, 1998. This specific year may not be representative of storage for the entire inventory period.

Sources of uncertainty associated with specific elements of the analysis are discussed below.

Imports/Exports

Import and export data for petrochemical feedstocks were obtained from EIA and the National Petroleum Refiners Association for the major categories of petrochemical feedstocks (EIA 2001a, NPRA 2001). The list of commodities for which imports and exports were analyzed is not comprehensive in tracking fossil fuel-derived feedstocks. In particular, the commodity codes used for the analysis do not track many secondary products or even some primary fossil fuel-derived products (e.g., the NPRA list of commodity codes includes polyethylene and polypropylene but not polystyrene, which is also a fossil fuel-derived commodity). Based on a limited screening analysis of additional relevant commodity codes, it appears that the current approach is likely to underestimate net exports of carbon. All unaccounted for carbon is currently assumed to be emitted. If net exports are higher than calculated here, the “missing” carbon would be lower, and thus emissions would be correspondingly lower.

Oxidation Factors

Oxidation factors have been applied to non-energy uses of petrochemical feedstocks in the same manner as for energy uses. However, this “oxidation factor” may be inherent in the storage factor applied when calculating emissions from non-energy consumption, which would result in a double-counting of the unoxidized carbon. Oxidation factors are small corrections, on the order of 1 percent, and therefore application of oxidation factors to non-energy uses may result in a slight underestimation of carbon emissions from non-energy uses.

TRI

The major uncertainty in using the TRI data are the possibility of double counting of emissions that are already accounted for in the NMVOC data (see above) and in the storage and emission assumptions used. The approach for predicting environmental fate simplifies some complex processes, and the balance between storage and emissions is very sensitive to the assumptions on fate. Extrapolating from known to unknown characteristics also introduces uncertainty. The two extrapolations with the greatest uncertainty are: 1) that the release media and fate of the off-site releases were assumed to be the same as for on-site releases, and 2) that the carbon content of the least frequent 10 percent of TRI releases was assumed to be the same as for the chemicals comprising 90 percent of the releases. However, the contribution of these chemicals to the overall estimate is small. The off-site releases only account for 3 percent of the total releases, by weight, and, by definition, the less frequent compounds only account for 10 percent of the total releases.

NMVOCs (Solvent Evaporation and Industry)

The principal sources of uncertainty in estimating CO₂ emissions from solvent evaporation and industry are in the estimates of total NMVOC emissions and in the application of factors for the carbon content of these emissions. Solvent evaporation and industrial NMVOC emissions reported by EPA are based on a number of data sources and emission factors, and may underestimate or overestimate emissions. The carbon content for solvent evaporation emissions is calculated directly from the specific solvent compounds identified by EPA as being emitted, and is thought to have relatively low uncertainty. The carbon content for industrial emissions has more uncertainty, however, as it is calculated from the average carbon content of an average volatile organic compound based on the list of the most abundant measured NMVOCs provided in EPA (2000b).

Hazardous Waste

Uncertainty in the hazardous waste combustion analysis is introduced by the assumptions about the composition of combusted hazardous wastes, including the characterization that hazardous wastes are similar to mixtures of water, noncombustibles, and fuel equivalent materials. Another limitation is the assumption that all of the carbon that enters hazardous waste combustion is emitted—some small fraction is likely to be sequestered in combustion ash—but given that the destruction and removal efficiency for hazardous organics is required to meet or exceed 99.99 percent, this is a very minor source of uncertainty. Carbon emission estimates from hazardous waste should be considered central value estimates that are likely to be accurate to within ±50 percent.

Energy Recovery

The amount of feedstocks combusted for energy recovery was estimated from data included in the Manufacturers Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) for 1998 (EIA 2001b). MECS is a comprehensive survey intended to represent U.S. industry as a whole, but because EIA does not receive data from all manufacturers (i.e., it is a sample rather than a census), EIA must extrapolate from the sample. Also, the “other” fuels are identified in the 1998 MECS data in broad categories, including refinery still gas; waste gas; waste oils, tars, and related materials; petroleum coke, coke oven and blast furnace gases; and other uncharacterized fuels. Moreover, the industries using these “other” fuels are also identified only in broad categories, including the petroleum and coal products, chemicals, primary metals, nonmetallic minerals, and other manufacturing sectors. The “other” fuel consumption data are reported in BTUs (energy units) and there is uncertainty concerning the selection of a specific conversion factor for each broad “other” fuel category to convert energy units to mass units. Taken as a whole, the estimate of energy recovery emissions probably introduces more uncertainty than any other element of the non-energy analysis.

Plastics

Uncertainty in the carbon storage estimate for plastics arises primarily from three factors. First, the production data for acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene, styrene-acrylonitrile, polyvinyl chloride, polypropylene, phenolic, urea, melamine, and thermoplastic polyester resins include Canadian production and may overestimate the amount of plastic produced from U.S. fuel feedstocks. Second, the assumed carbon content values are estimates for representative compounds, and thus do not account for the many formulations of resins available. This uncertainty is greater for resin categories that are generic (e.g., phenolics, other styrenics, nylon) than for resins with more specific formulations (e.g., polypropylene, polyethylene). Lastly, the assumption that all of the carbon contained in plastics is stored ignores certain end uses (e.g., adhesives and coatings) where the resin may be released to the atmosphere; however, these end uses are likely to be small relative to use in plastics.

Rubber

Similar to plastics, uncertainty results from using consumption data for the United States and Canada, rather than just domestic consumption, which may overestimate the amount of rubber produced from U.S. fuel feedstocks. There are also uncertainties as to the assignment of carbon content values; however, they are much smaller than in the case of plastics. There are probably fewer variations in rubber formulations than in plastics, and the range of potential carbon content values is much narrower. Lastly, assuming that all of the carbon contained in rubber is stored ignores the possibility of volatilization or degradation during product lifetimes. However, the proportion of the total carbon that is released to the atmosphere during use is probably negligible.

Fibers

A small degree of uncertainty arises from the assignment of carbon content values; however, the magnitude of this uncertainty is less than that for plastics or rubber. Although there is considerable variation in final textile products, the stock fiber formulations are standardized and proscribed explicitly by the Federal Trade Commission.

Pesticides

The largest source of uncertainty involves the assumption that a pesticide’s active ingredient carbon is either 0 percent stored or 100 percent stored. This split is a generalization of chemical behavior, based upon active-

ingredient molecular structure, and not on compound-specific environmental data. The mechanism by which a compound is bound or released from soils is very complicated and can be affected by many variables, including the type of crop, temperature, delivery method, and harvesting practice. Another smaller source of uncertainty arises from the carbon content values applied to the unaccounted for portion of active ingredient. Carbon contents vary widely among pesticides, from 7 to 72 percent, and the remaining pesticides may have a chemical make-up that is very different from the 32 pesticides that have been examined.

Asphalt and Road Oil

Asphalt is one of the principal non-energy uses of fossil fuels. The term “asphalt” generally refers to a mixture of asphalt cement and a rock material aggregate, a volatile petroleum distillate, or water. For the purposes of this analysis, “asphalt” is used interchangeably with asphalt cement, a residue of crude oil. According to EIA (2000d), approximately 100 Tg CO₂ Eq. has been used in the production of asphalt cement annually. Though minor amounts of carbon are emitted during production, asphalt has an overall carbon storage factor of almost 100 percent.

Paving is the primary application of asphalt cement, comprising 86 percent of production. The three types of asphalt paving produced in the United States are hot mix asphalt (HMA), cut-backs, and emulsified asphalt. HMA, which makes up 90 percent of total asphalt paving (EPA 2000d), contains asphalt cement mixed with an aggregate of rock materials. Cut-back asphalt is composed of asphalt cement thinned with a volatile petroleum distillate (e.g., naphtha). Emulsified asphalt contains only asphalt cement and water. Roofing products are the other significant end use of asphalt cement, accounting for approximately 14 percent of U.S. production (Kelly 2000). No data were available on the fate of carbon in asphalt roofing; it was assumed that it has the same fate as carbon in asphalt paving applications.

Methodology

A carbon storage factor was calculated for each type of asphalt paving. The fraction of carbon emitted by each asphalt type was multiplied by consumption data for asphalt paving (EPA 2000d, EIIP 1998) to come up with a weighted average carbon storage factor for asphalt as a whole.

The fraction of carbon emitted by HMA was determined by first calculating the organic emissions (volatile organic compounds [VOCs], carbon monoxide, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons [PAHs], hazardous air pollutants [HAPs], and phenol) from HMA paving, using emission factors reported in EPA (2000d) and total HMA production.⁹ The next step was to estimate the carbon content of the organic emissions. This calculation was based on stoichiometry for carbon monoxide (CO) and phenol, and an assumption of 85 percent carbon content for PAHs and HAPs. The carbon content of asphalt paving is a function of the proportion of asphalt cement in asphalt paving and the proportion of carbon in asphalt cement. For the former factor, a 5 percent asphalt cement content was assumed based on personal communication with an expert from the National Asphalt Paving Association (Connolly 2000). For the latter factor, all paving types were characterized as having a mass fraction of 85 percent carbon in asphalt cement, based on the assumption that asphalt is primarily composed of saturated paraffinic hydrocarbons. By combining these estimates, the result is that over 99.99 percent of the carbon in asphalt cement was retained (i.e., stored), and less than 0.01 percent was emitted.

Cut-back asphalt is produced in three forms (i.e., rapid, medium and slow cure). All three forms emit carbon only from the volatile petroleum distillate used to thin the asphalt cement (EPA 1995). Because the petroleum distillates are not included in the EIA statistics for asphalt, the storage factor for cut-back is assumed to be 100 percent.

It was also assumed that there was no loss of carbon from emulsified asphalt (i.e., the storage factor is 100 percent) based on personal communication with an expert from Akzo Nobel Coatings, Inc. (James 2000).

⁹ The emission factors are expressed as a function of asphalt paving tonnage (i.e., including the rock aggregate as well as the asphalt cement).

Data Sources

Data on asphalt and road oil consumption and carbon content factors were supplied by EIA. Hot mix asphalt production and emissions factors were obtained from “Hot Mix Asphalt Plants Emissions Assessment Report” from EPA’s *AP-42* (EPA 2000d) publication. The asphalt cement content of HMA was provided by Una Connolly of National Asphalt Paving Association (Connolly 2000). The consumption data for cut-back and emulsified asphalts were taken from a Moulthrop, et al. study used as guidance for estimating air pollutant emissions from paving processes (EIIP 1998). “Asphalt Paving Operation” *AP-42* (EPA 1995) provided the emissions source information used in the calculation of the carbon storage factor for cut-back asphalt. The storage factor for emulsified asphalt was provided by Alan James of Akzo Nobel Coatings, Inc. (James 2000).

Uncertainty

The principal source of uncertainty is that the available data are from short-term studies of emissions associated with the production and application of asphalt. As a practical matter, the cement in asphalt deteriorates over time, contributing to the need for periodic re-paving. Whether this deterioration is due to physical erosion of the cement and continued storage of carbon in a refractory form or physicochemical degradation and eventual release of CO₂ is uncertain. Long-term studies may reveal higher lifetime emissions rates associated with degradation.

Many of the values used in the analysis are also uncertain and are based on estimates and professional judgment. For example, the asphalt cement input for HMA was based on expert advice indicating that the range is variable—from about 3 to 5 percent—with actual content based on climate and geographical factors (Connolly 2000). Over this range, the effect on the calculated carbon storage factor is minimal (on the order of 0.1 percent). Similarly, changes in the assumed carbon content of asphalt cement would have only a minor effect.

The consumption figures for cut-back and emulsified asphalts are based on information reported for 1994. More recent trends indicate a decrease in cut-back use due to high VOC emission levels and a related increase in emulsified asphalt use as a substitute. However, because the carbon storage factor of each is 100 percent, use of more recent data would not affect the overall result.

Lubricants

Lubricants are used in industrial and transportation applications. They can be subdivided into oils and greases, which differ in terms of physical characteristics (e.g., viscosity), commercial applications, and environmental fate. According to EIA (2000), the carbon content of U.S. production of lubricants in 1999 was approximately 28 Tg CO₂ Eq. Based on apportioning oils and greases to various environmental fates, and characterizing those fates as resulting in either long-term storage or emissions, the overall carbon storage factor was estimated to be 9 percent; thus, storage in 1999 was about 3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Methodology

For each lubricant category, a storage factor was derived by identifying disposal fates and applying assumptions as to the disposition of the carbon for each practice. An overall lubricant carbon storage factor was calculated by taking a production-weighted average of the oil and grease storage factors.

Oils

Regulation of used oil in the United States has changed dramatically over the past 15 years.¹⁰ The effect of these regulations and policies has been to restrict land filling and dumping, and to encourage collection of used oil. Given the relatively inexpensive price of crude oil, the economics have not favored re-refining—instead, most of the used oil that has been collected has been combusted.

¹⁰ For example, the U.S. EPA “RCRA (Resource Conservation and Recovery Act) On-line” web site (<http://www.epa.gov/rcraonline/>) has over 50 entries on used oil regulation and policy for 1994 through 2000.

Table C-15 provides an estimated allocation of the fates of lubricant oils, along with an estimate of the proportion of carbon stored in each fate. The ultimate fate of the majority of oils (about 84 percent) is combustion, either during initial use or after collection as used oil. Combustion results in 99 percent oxidation to CO₂, with correspondingly little long-term storage of carbon in the form of ash. Dumping onto the ground or into storm sewers, primarily by “do-it-yourselfers” who change their own oil, is another fate that results in conversion to CO₂ given that the releases are generally small and most of the oil is biodegraded. In the landfill environment, which tends to be anaerobic, within municipal landfills, it is assumed that 90 percent of the oil persists in an undegraded form. Re-refining adds a recycling loop to the fate of oil; it was assumed that about 97 percent of the carbon in re-refined oil is ultimately oxidized. Because of the dominance of fates that result in eventual release as CO₂, only about 3 percent of the carbon in oil lubricants goes into long-term storage.

Table C-15: Commercial and Environmental Fate of Oil Lubricants (Percent)

Fate of Oil	Portion of Total	
	Oil	Carbon Stored
Combusted During Use	20	1
Not Combusted During Use	80	-
Combusted as Used Oil*	64	1
Dumped on the ground or in storm sewers	6	0
Landfilled	2	90
Re-refined into lube oil base stock and other products	8	3
Weighted Average	-	2.9

* (e.g., in boilers or space heaters)

- Not applicable

Greases

Table C-16 provides analogous estimates for lubricant greases. Unlike oils, grease is generally not combusted during use, and combustion for energy recovery and re-refining are thought to be negligible. Although little is known about the fate of waste grease, it was assumed that 90 percent of the non-combusted portion is landfilled, and the remainder is dumped onto the ground or storm sewers. Because much of the waste grease will be in containers that render it relatively inaccessible to biodegradation, it was assumed that 90 percent and 50 percent of the carbon in landfilled and dumped grease, respectively, would be stored. The overall storage factor is 82 percent for grease.

Table C-16: Commercial and Environmental Fate of Grease Lubricants (Percent)

Fate of Grease	Total Grease	Carbon Stored
Combusted During Use	5	1
Not Combusted During Use	95	-
Landfilled	85.5	90
Dumped on the ground or in storm sewers	9.5	50
Weighted Average	-	81.8

- Not applicable

Having derived separate storage factors for oil and grease, the last step was to estimate the weighted average for lubricants as a whole. No data were found apportioning the mass of lubricants into these two categories, but the U.S. Census Bureau does maintain records of the value of production of lubricating oils and lubricating greases. Assuming that the mass of lubricants can be allocated according to the proportion of value of production (92 percent oil, 8 percent grease), applying these weights to the storage factors for oils and greases (3 percent and 82 percent) yields an overall storage factor of 9 percent.

Data Sources

The estimated volume of lubricants produced annually is based on statistics provided by EIA (2000), which conducts surveys of lubricating oil and grease consumption. Information on the value of lubricating oil and grease production was obtained from reports by the U.S. Census Bureau (1999).

The characterization of fate is based primarily on professional judgment of an EPA regulatory analyst with experience in used oil (Rinehart 2000). For the proportions combusted, one percent was assumed to remain un-

oxidized in combustion processes (EIIP 1999); for other fates, estimates are based on professional judgment. The assumption that landfilled oil and grease results in 90 percent storage is based on analogy with the persistence of petroleum in native petroleum-bearing strata, which are both anaerobic. The assumption that oil dumped on the ground or in storm sewers is completely degraded is based on the observation that land farming—application to soil—is one of the most frequently used methods for degrading refinery wastes. The lower degradation rate for grease is based on the observation that greases contain longer chain paraffins, which are more persistent. Re-refined oil was assumed to have a storage factor equal to the weighted average for the other fates (i.e., after re-refining, the oil would have the same probability of combustion, landfilling, or dumping as virgin oil).

Uncertainty

The principal sources of uncertainty for the disposition of lubricants are the estimates of the commercial use, post-use, and environmental fate of lubricants, which, as noted above, are largely based on assumptions and judgment. There is no comprehensive system to track used oil and greases, which makes it difficult to develop a verifiable estimate of the commercial fates of oil and grease. The environmental fate estimates for percent of carbon stored are less uncertain, but also introduce uncertainty in the estimate.

The assumption that the mass of oil and grease can be divided according to their value also introduces uncertainty. Given the large difference between the storage factors for oil and grease, changes in their share of total lubricant production have a large effect on the weighted storage factor.

ANNEX D

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Ambient Air Pollutants from Stationary Combustion

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from stationary combustion were estimated using IPCC emission factors and methods. Estimates were obtained by multiplying emission factors—by sector and fuel type—by fossil fuel and wood consumption data. This “top-down” methodology is characterized by two basic steps, described below. Data are presented in Table D-1 through Table D-5.

Step 1: Determine Energy Consumption by Sector and Fuel Type

Greenhouse gas emissions from stationary combustion activities were grouped into four sectors: industrial, commercial, residential, and electricity generation. For CH₄ and N₂O, estimates were based upon consumption of coal, gas, oil, and wood. Energy consumption data were obtained from EIA’s *Annual Energy Review* (EIA 2002), and adjusted from higher to lower heating values by multiplying by 0.9 for natural gas and wood and by 0.95 for coal and petroleum fuel. This is a simplified convention used by the International Energy Agency. Table D-1 provides annual energy consumption data for the years 1990 through 2001.

Step 2: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted

Activity data for each sector and fuel type were then multiplied by emission factors to obtain emission estimates. Emission factors were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Table D-2 provides emission factors used for each sector and fuel type.

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

For ambient air pollutants, the major source categories included were those identified in EPA (2003): coal, fuel oil, natural gas, wood, other fuels (i.e., bagasse, liquefied petroleum gases, coke, coke oven gas, and others), and stationary internal combustion, which includes emissions from internal combustion engines not used in transportation. EPA (2003) periodically estimates emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs by sector and fuel type using a “bottom-up” estimating procedure. In other words, the emissions were calculated either for individual sources (e.g., industrial boilers) or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., fuel consumption or deliveries, etc.) as indicators of emissions. EPA (2003) projected emissions for years subsequent to their bottom-up estimates. The national activity data used to calculate the individual categories were obtained from various sources. Depending upon the category, these activity data may include fuel consumption or deliveries of fuel, tons of refuse burned, raw material processed, etc. Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors that relate the quantity of emissions to the activity.

Table D-3 through Table D-5 present ambient air pollutant emission estimates for 1990 through 2001.

The basic calculation procedure for most source categories presented in EPA (2003) is represented by the following equation:

$$E_{p,s} = A_s \times EF_{p,s} \times (1 - C_{p,s}/100)$$

Where:

E	=	emissions
p	=	pollutant
s	=	source category
A	=	activity level
EF	=	emission factor
C	=	percent control efficiency

The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a category from a variety of sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program (NAPAP) emissions inventory, and other EPA databases. The U.S. approach for estimating emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from stationary combustion as described above is similar to the methodology recommended by the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table D-1: Fuel Consumption by Stationary Combustion for Calculating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions (Tbtu)

Fuel/End-Use Sector	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Coal	18,019	19,187	20,123	20,615	20,790	20,800	21,754	21,819
Residential	26	17	17	16	13	14	12	12
Commercial	129	117	122	129	92	103	91	91
Industrial	1,612	1,577	1,545	1,555	1,459	1,394	1,421	2,017
Electricity Generation	16,245	17,466	18,429	18,905	19,216	19,279	20,220	19,689
Petroleum	7,853	6,967	7,396	7,484	7,333	7,196	7,371	7,503
Residential	1,263	1,356	1,489	1,448	1,322	1,452	1,493	1,473
Commercial	913	710	742	703	658	655	719	718
Industrial	4,024	3,676	3,989	4,020	3,588	3,419	3,543	3,549
Electricity Generation	1,278	755	817	927	1,306	1,211	1,144	1,280
Natural Gas	18,366	21,343	21,734	21,796	21,449	21,593	22,643	21,978
Residential	4,523	4,981	5,383	5,118	4,669	4,858	5,121	4,940
Commercial	2,701	3,113	3,244	3,302	3,098	3,130	3,301	3,331
Industrial	7,821	8,924	9,224	9,230	8,984	8,679	8,893	8,287
Electricity Generation	3,321	4,325	3,883	4,146	4,698	4,926	5,316	5,397
Wood	2,190	2,420	2,467	2,210	2,175	2,210	2,257	2,170
Residential	581	596	595	414	387	414	433	407
Commercial	39	46	50	52	48	52	53	43
Industrial	1,447	1,652	1,683	1,606	1,603	1,606	1,636	1,580
Electricity Generation	124	125	138	138	137	138	134	140

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table D-2: CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Fuel Type and Sector (g/GJ)¹

Fuel/End-Use Sector	CH ₄	N ₂ O
Coal		
Residential	300	1.4
Commercial	10	1.4
Industrial	10	1.4
Electricity Generation	1	1.4
Petroleum		
Residential	10	0.6
Commercial	10	0.6
Industrial	2	0.6
Electricity Generation	3	0.6
Natural Gas		
Residential	5	0.1
Commercial	5	0.1
Industrial	5	0.1
Electricity Generation	1	0.1
Wood		
Residential	300	4.0
Commercial	300	4.0
Industrial	30	4.0
Electricity Generation	30	4.0

¹ GJ (Gigajoule) = 10⁹ joules. One joule = 9.486×10⁻⁴ Btu

ANNEX E

Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Ambient Air Pollutants from Mobile Combustion and Methodology for and Supplemental Information on Transportation-Related GHG Emissions

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Greenhouse gas emissions from mobile combustion other than CO₂ are reported by transport mode (e.g., road, rail, aviation, and waterborne), vehicle type, and fuel type. The EPA does not systematically track emissions of CH₄ and N₂O; therefore, estimates of these gases were developed using a methodology similar to that outlined in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Activity data were obtained from a number of U.S. government agencies and other publications. Depending on the category, these basic activity data included such information as fuel consumption, fuel deliveries, and vehicle miles traveled (VMT).

Methodology for Highway Gasoline and Diesel Vehicles

Step 1: Determine Vehicle Miles Traveled by Vehicle Type, Fuel Type, and Model Year

VMT by vehicle type were obtained from the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) *Highway Statistics* (FHWA 1996 through 2002). As these vehicle categories are not fuel-specific, VMT for each vehicle type was disaggregated by fuel type using fuel economy and consumption data, so that the appropriate emission factors could be applied. First, fuel economy and consumption data from FHWA's *Highway Statistics* were disaggregated by fuel type using a number of sources, including the Department of Energy's (DOE) *Transportation Energy Data Book* (DOE 1993 through 2002), FHWA's *Highway Statistics* (FHWA 1996 through 2002), EPA and DOE's *Fuel Economy 2001 Datafile* (EPA/DOE 2001), and the *Vehicle Inventory and Use Survey* (Census 2000). These data were used to distribute national VMT estimates across vehicle categories,¹ including passenger cars (0-8500 GVWR), light duty trucks (0-8500 GVWR), heavy duty vehicles (>8500 GVWR), and motorcycles.² For a more detailed description of vehicle types, see Technical Description of Mobile 6.2 and Guidance on Its Use for Emission Inventory Preparation Draft Report (EPA420-R-02-011).

VMT for alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicles (henceforth known simply as AFVs) were calculated separately, and the methodology is explained in the following section on AFVs. Since the VMT estimates from FHWA include total VMT in the United States, it was necessary to subtract VMT from AFVs from this total. National VMT data for gasoline and diesel highway vehicles are presented in Table E-1 and Table E-2, respectively. Total VMT for each highway category (i.e., gasoline passenger cars, light-duty gasoline trucks, heavy-duty gasoline vehicles, diesel passenger cars, light-duty diesel trucks, heavy-duty diesel vehicles, and motorcycles) were distributed across 25 model years based on the VMT distribution by vehicle age shown in Table E-7. This distribution was derived by weighting the temporally fixed age distribution of the U.S. vehicle fleet according to vehicle registrations (Table E-5) by the average annual age-specific vehicle mileage accumulation of U.S. vehicles (Table E-6). Both were obtained from EPA's MOBILE6 model (EPA 2000).

¹ This methodology is presented in more detail in ICF Consulting (2001).

² GVWR is gross vehicle weight rating (i.e. vehicle weight plus weighted cargo capacity).

Step 2: Allocate VMT Data to Control Technology Type

VMT by vehicle type for each model year were distributed across various control technologies as shown in Table E-9 through Table E-12. The categories “EPA Tier 0” and “EPA Tier 1” were substituted for the early three-way catalyst and advanced three-way catalyst categories, respectively, as defined in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*. EPA Tier 0, EPA Tier 1, and LEV actually refer to U.S. emission regulations, rather than control technologies; however, each does correspond to particular combinations of control technologies and engine design. EPA Tier 1 and its predecessor EPA Tier 0 both apply to vehicles equipped with three-way catalysts. The introduction of “early three-way catalysts,” and “advanced three-way catalysts,” as described in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, roughly correspond to the introduction of EPA Tier 0 and EPA Tier 1 regulations (EPA 1998).³

Control technology assignments for light and heavy-duty conventional fuel vehicles for model years 1972 (when regulations began to take effect) through 1995 were estimated in EPA (1998). Assignments for 1998 through 2001 were determined using confidential engine family sales data submitted to EPA (EPA 2002b). Vehicle classes and emission standard tiers to which each engine family was certified were taken from annual certification test results and data (EPA 2002a). This was used to determine the fraction of sales of each class of vehicle that met EPA Tier 0, EPA Tier 1, and LEV standards. Assignments for 1996 and 1997 were estimated based on the fact that EPA Tier 1 standards for light-duty vehicles were fully phased in by 1996.

Step 3: Determine CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Vehicle, Fuel, and Control Technology Type

CH₄ emission factors were primarily obtained from the IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), which were derived from the EPA’s MOBILE5a mobile source emissions model (EPA 1997). The MOBILE5a model uses information on ambient temperature, diurnal temperature range, altitude, vehicle speeds, national vehicle registration distributions, gasoline volatility, emission control technologies, fuel composition, and the presence or absence of vehicle inspection/maintenance programs in order to produce these factors. Since MOBILE5a, many heavy-duty gasoline vehicles are now compliant with EPA Tier 1 and LEV emission standards. Methane emission factors for these vehicles were determined using emission factors from the California Air Resources Board (CARB 2000).

Emissions of N₂O have not been extensively studied and are currently not well characterized. The limited number of studies that have been performed on highway vehicle emissions of N₂O have shown that emissions are generally greater from vehicles with catalytic converter systems than those without such controls, and greater from aged than from new catalysts. These systems control tailpipe emissions of NO_x (i.e., NO and NO₂) by catalytically reducing NO_x to N₂. Sub-optimal catalyst performance, caused by as yet poorly understood factors, results in incomplete reduction and the conversion of some NO_x to N₂O rather than to N₂. Fortunately, newer vehicles with catalyst and engine designs meeting the more recent EPA Tier 1 and LEV standards have shown reduced emission rates of both NO_x and N₂O compared with earlier catalyst designs.

In order to better characterize the process by which N₂O is formed by catalytic controls and to develop a more accurate national emission estimate, the EPA’s Office of Transportation and Air Quality—at its National Vehicle and Fuel Emissions Laboratory (NVFEL)—conducted a series of tests in order to measure emission rates of N₂O from used EPA Tier 1 and LEV gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks equipped with catalytic converters. These tests and a review of the literature were used to develop the emission factors for N₂O (EPA 1998). The following references were used in developing the N₂O emission factors for gasoline-fueled highway passenger cars presented in Table E-13:

³ For further description, see “Definitions of Emission Control Technologies and Standards” section of this annex.

- *LEVs*. Tests performed at NVFEL (EPA 1998)⁴
- *EPA Tier 1*. Tests performed at NVFEL (EPA 1998)
- *EPA Tier 0*. Smith and Carey (1982), Barton and Simpson (1994), and one car tested at NVFEL (EPA 1998)
- *Oxidation Catalyst*. Smith and Carey (1982), Urban and Garbe (1980)
- *Non-Catalyst*. Prigent and de Soete (1989), Dasch (1992), and Urban and Garbe (1979)

Nitrous oxide emission factors for other types of gasoline-fueled vehicles—light-duty trucks, heavy-duty vehicles, and motorcycles—were estimated by adjusting the factors for gasoline passenger cars, as described above, by their relative fuel economies. This adjustment was performed using miles per gallon data derived from (DOE 1993 through 2002), (FHWA 1996 through 2002), (EPA, DOE 2001), and (Census 2000) shown in Table E-13. Data from the literature and tests performed at NVFEL support the conclusion that light-duty trucks and other vehicles have higher emission rates than passenger cars. However, the use of fuel-consumption ratios to determine emission factors is considered an estimate, with a moderate level of uncertainty.

Nitrous oxide emission factors for heavy-duty gasoline vehicles compliant with EPA Tier 1 and LEV emission standards were estimated from the ratio of NO_x emissions to N₂O emissions for EPA Tier 0 heavy-duty gasoline trucks.

The resulting N₂O emission factors employed for gasoline highway vehicles are lower than the U.S. default values presented in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, but are higher than the European default values, both of which were published before the more recent tests and literature review conducted by the NVFEL. The U.S. defaults in the *Guidelines* were based on three studies that tested a total of five cars using European rather than U.S. test procedures.

Nitrous oxide emission factors for diesel highway vehicles were taken from the European default values found in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Little data addressing N₂O emissions from U.S. diesel-fueled vehicles exists, and in general, European countries have had more experience with diesel-fueled vehicles.

Compared to regulated tailpipe emissions, relatively little data are available to estimate emission factors for N₂O. Nitrous oxide is not a regulated ambient air pollutant, and measurements of it in automobile exhaust have not been routinely collected. Further testing would be needed to reduce the uncertainty in N₂O emission factors for all classes of vehicles, using realistic driving regimes, environmental conditions, and fuels.

Step 4: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted by Vehicle, Fuel, and Control Technology Type

VMT for each highway category for each year were first converted to vehicle kilometers traveled (VKT) so that emission factors could be applied. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O were then calculated by multiplying total VKT by vehicle, fuel, and control technology type by the emission factors developed in Step 3.

⁴ LEVs are assumed to be operated using low-sulfur fuel (i.e., Indolene at 24 ppm sulfur). All other NVFEL tests were performed using a standard commercial fuel (CAAB at 285 ppm sulfur). Emission tests by NVFEL have consistently exhibited higher N₂O emission rates from higher sulfur fuels on EPA Tier 1 and LEV vehicles.

Methodology for Alternative Fuel Vehicles (AFVs)

Step 1: Determine Vehicle Miles Traveled by Vehicle and Fuel Type

VMT for alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicles were calculated from the Energy Information Administration Data Tables (EIA 2002a). Alternative Fuels include Compressed Natural Gas (CNG), Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), Ethanol, Methanol, and Electric Vehicles (battery powered). Most of the vehicles that use these fuels run an Internal Combustion Engine (ICE) powered by the alternative fuel, although many of the vehicles can run on either the alternative fuel or gasoline (or diesel), or some combination. The data obtained include vehicle fuel use and total number of vehicles in use from 1992 through 2001. Fuel economy for each vehicle type and calendar year was determined by estimating the gasoline equivalent fuel economy for each technology. Energy economy ratios (the ratio of the gasoline equivalent fuel economy of a given technology to that of conventional gasoline or diesel vehicles) were taken from full fuel cycle studies done for the California Air Resources Board (Unnasch and Browning, 2000). These were used to estimate fuel economy in miles per gasoline gallon equivalent for each alternative fuel and vehicle type. Energy use per fuel type was then divided among the various weight categories and vehicle technologies that would use that fuel. Total VMT per vehicle type for each calendar year was then determined by dividing the energy usage by the fuel economy. Average vehicle VMT was then calculated by dividing total VMT per vehicle type by the number of vehicles. Average vehicle VMT for each vehicle type was checked against the Federal Highway Administration Highway Statistics Series for each calendar year (FHWA 1996 through 2002). Note that for AFVs capable of running on both/either traditional and alternative fuels, the VMT given reflects only those miles driven that were powered by the alternative fuel. Overall VMT estimates for AFVs are shown in Table E-3, while more detailed estimates of VMT are shown in Table E-4.

Step 2: Determine CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Vehicle and Alternative Fuel Type

Limited data exists on N₂O and CH₄ emission factors for alternative fuel vehicles, and most of this data is for older emission control technologies. Several studies have estimated emission factors for alternative fuel vehicles, but similarly do not cover all of the various technologies and weight classes. Light-duty alternative fuel vehicle emission factors are estimated in Argonne National Laboratory's GREET 1.5 – Transportation Fuel Cycle Model (Wang 1999). In addition, Lipman and Delucchi estimate emission factors for some light and heavy-duty alternative fuel vehicles (Lipman and Delucchi 2002). The approach taken here is to calculate CH₄ emissions from actual test data and determine N₂O emissions from NO_x emissions from the same tests. Since it is likely that most alternative fuel vehicles use the same or similar catalysts to their conventional counterpart, the amount of N₂O emissions will depend upon the amount of oxides of nitrogen emissions that the engine produces. Based upon gasoline data for EPA Tier 1 cars, the tailpipe NO_x to N₂O ratio is 5.75. Lipman and Delucchi (2002) found NO_x to N₂O ratios for light-duty alternative fuel vehicles with three-way catalyst systems to vary from 3 to 5.5 for older technology.

Methane emission factors for light-duty vehicles were taken from the Auto/Oil Air Quality Improvement Research Program dataset (CRC 1997). This dataset provided CH₄ emission factors for all light-duty vehicle technologies except for LPG (propane). Light-duty propane emission factors were determined from reports on LPG-vehicle emissions from the California Air Resources Board (Brasil and McMahon, 1999) and the University of California Riverside (Norbeck, et al., 1998).

Heavy-duty emission factors for alternative fuel vehicles were determined from test data using the West Virginia University mobile dynamometer (DOE 2002a). Emission factors were determined based on the ratio of total hydrocarbon emissions to CH₄ emissions found for light-duty vehicles using the same fuel. Nitrous oxide emissions for heavy-duty engines were calculated from NO_x emission results using a NO_x to N₂O ratio of 50, which is more typical for heavy-duty engines with oxidation catalysts. These emission factors are shown in Table E-14.

Step 3: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted by Vehicle and Fuel Type

Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O were calculated by multiplying total VMT by vehicle and fuel type (Step 1) by the appropriate emission factors (Step 2).

Methodology for Non-Highway Mobile Sources

Activity data for non-highway vehicles were based on annual fuel consumption statistics by transportation mode and fuel type and are shown in Table E-8. Consumption data for distillate and residual fuel oil by ships and boats (i.e., vessel bunkering), construction equipment, and farm equipment and residual fuel use by locomotives were obtained from EIA's Fuel Oil and Kerosene Sales (1991 through 2002). In the case of ships and boats, vessel bunkering data from U.S. territories (EIA 2002c) were added to domestic consumption, and this total was reduced by the amount of fuel used for international bunkers.⁵ Annual diesel consumption for Class I railroad locomotives was obtained from AAR (2001), while consumption by Class II and III railroad locomotives was provided by Benson (2002). Data on the consumption of jet fuel and aviation gasoline in aircraft were obtained from EIA (2002b), as described under Annex A: CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion, and were reduced by the amount allocated to international bunker fuels. Data on the consumption of motor gasoline by ships and boats, construction equipment, and farm equipment were drawn from FHWA (1996 through 2002).

Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from non-highway mobile sources were calculated by multiplying U.S. default emission factors in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) by activity data for each source type (see Table E-15).

Table E-16 and Table E-17 provide complete emissions of CH₄ and N₂O emissions, respectively, for 1990 through 2001.

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

The emission estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs for mobile combustion were taken directly from the EPA's National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2003). This EPA report provides emission estimates for these gases by sector and fuel type using a "top down" estimating procedure whereby emissions were calculated using basic activity data, such as amount of fuel delivered or miles traveled, as indicators of emissions.

Table E-18 through Table E-20 provide complete emissions estimates for 1990 through 2001.

Table E-1: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Gasoline Highway Vehicles (10⁹ Miles)

Year	Passenger Cars	Light-Duty Trucks	Heavy-Duty Vehicles	Motorcycles
1990	1395.4	558.0	29.8	8.7
1991	1346.1	631.9	31.7	8.8
1992	1359.6	687.4	30.7	9.1
1993	1363.0	724.1	29.8	9.3
1994	1394.8	742.3	30.2	9.5
1995	1426.8	767.0	30.1	9.8
1996	1458.7	792.6	30.2	9.9
1997	1491.4	824.9	30.1	10.1
1998	1538.9	842.1	30.6	10.3
1999	1558.8	873.5	30.8	10.6
2000	1590.1	894.5	29.6	10.5
2001	1609.6	908.8	28.5	9.5

Source: Derived from FHWA (1996 through 2002).

⁵ See International Bunker Fuels section of the Energy Chapter.

Table E-2: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Diesel Highway Vehicles (10⁹ Miles)

Year	Passenger Cars	Light-Duty Trucks	Heavy-Duty Vehicles
1990	13.7	15.4	121.2
1991	12.4	16.4	122.7
1992	12.3	18.5	127.6
1993	12.1	20.4	135.1
1994	11.8	21.2	145.4
1995	11.2	21.9	153.4
1996	10.8	22.8	158.3
1997	10.8	24.6	167.0
1998	10.3	24.7	171.5
1999	9.9	26.0	178.3
2000	9.6	26.9	182.0
2001	9.1	27.3	184.5

Source: Derived from FHWA (1996 through 2002).

Table E-3: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Alternative Fuel Highway Vehicles (10⁹ Miles)

Year	Passenger Cars	Light-Duty Trucks	Heavy-Duty Vehicles
1990	0.1	1.2	0.9
1991	0.1	1.1	0.9
1992	0.1	1.0	0.8
1993	0.2	1.2	1.1
1994	0.2	1.2	1.0
1995	0.3	1.1	1.0
1996	0.3	1.2	1.1
1997	0.3	1.3	1.2
1998	0.4	1.4	1.3
1999	0.4	1.6	1.3
2000	0.6	1.5	1.5
2001	0.8	1.8	1.8

Source: Derived from EIA (2002a).

Table E-4: Detailed Vehicle Miles Traveled for Alternative Fuel Highway Vehicles (10⁶ Miles)

7	7.22%	7.04%	6.16%	7.22%	5.90%	6.13%	4.60%
8	6.72%	6.19%	5.27%	6.72%	5.04%	5.20%	3.31%
9	6.20%	5.36%	4.51%	6.20%	4.30%	4.41%	2.33%
10	5.64%	4.57%	3.86%	5.64%	3.67%	3.74%	1.62%
11	5.03%	3.82%	3.31%	5.03%	3.13%	3.18%	1.09%
12	4.38%	3.14%	2.83%	4.38%	2.67%	2.70%	3.73%
13	3.54%	2.52%	2.42%	3.54%	2.28%	2.29%	-
14	2.67%	1.99%	2.07%	2.67%	1.95%	1.94%	-
15	2.01%	1.54%	1.76%	2.01%	1.66%	1.65%	-
16	1.52%	1.16%	1.52%	1.52%	1.42%	1.40%	-
17	1.14%	0.87%	1.30%	1.14%	1.21%	1.19%	-
18	0.86%	0.64%	1.12%	0.86%	1.04%	1.01%	-
19	0.65%	0.50%	0.96%	0.65%	0.89%	0.86%	-
20	0.49%	0.43%	0.82%	0.49%	0.76%	0.73%	-
21	0.37%	0.37%	0.70%	0.37%	0.65%	0.62%	-
22	0.28%	0.32%	0.60%	0.28%	0.55%	0.53%	-
23	0.21%	0.27%	0.52%	0.21%	0.47%	0.45%	-
24	0.16%	0.23%	0.44%	0.16%	0.40%	0.38%	-
25	0.43%	1.04%	1.85%	0.43%	1.75%	1.65%	-
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note: Estimated by weighting data in Table E-3 by data in Table E-4.

Table E-8: Fuel Consumption for Non-Highway Vehicles by Fuel Type (thousand gallons)

Vehicle Type/ Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Aircraft												
Gasoline ^a	374,216	347,126	341,582	319,449	317,307	329,319	310,797	330,285	295,345	325,913	301,893	290,679
Jet Fuel	18,280,476	17,511,325	17,281,747	17,421,016	18,270,976	17,806,704	18,746,820	18,603,881	19,063,120	19,432,004	20,355,053	19,162,649
Ships and Boats												
Diesel	1,697,600	1,693,361	1,706,144	1,546,311	1,630,093	1,518,608	1,839,335	1,801,798	1,597,011	1,863,606	1,858,210	1,996,202
Gasoline	1,300,400	1,709,700	1,316,170	873,687	896,700	1,060,394	993,671	987,193	956,232	1,098,137	1,124,269	1,095,153
Residual	1,521,437	1,486,167	2,347,065	2,758,924	2,499,868	2,994,693	2,286,350	1,011,487	723,766	2,391,248	3,289,908	897,957
Construction Equipment												
Diesel	1,581,500	1,492,000	1,514,205	1,526,043	1,531,300	1,472,827	1,645,647	1,678,482	1,749,317	1,723,597	1,899,837	2,086,388
Gasoline	318,200	287,200	272,900	245,299	272,852	280,046	283,911	300,491	234,705	177,758	191,516	506,682
Agricultural Equipment												
Diesel	3,164,200	3,144,200	3,274,811	3,077,122	3,062,436	3,093,224	3,225,029	3,206,359	2,965,006	2,805,157	3,079,664	3,350,683
Gasoline	812,800	776,200	805,500	845,320	911,996	926,732	918,085	984,450	906,941	702,700	652,256	801,552
Locomotives												
Diesel	3,324,446	3,115,970	3,212,108	3,301,981	3,585,802	3,733,096	3,820,649	3,812,793	3,859,341	3,989,428	3,960,107	3,969,985
Residual	25	7	8	4	6	6	9	3	3	4	6	3
Other^b												
Diesel	926,800	955,400	773,437	797,140	905,842	800,335	741,326	706,754	682,865	685,634	610,078	740,341
Gasoline	1,205,400	1,097,700	1,219,300	1,025,088	1,039,310	1,071,597	1,081,640	1,097,258	1,139,229	1,021,836	1,040,138	1,755,320

Sources: AAR (2001), EIA (2002b), EIA (1991 through 2002), FHWA (1996 through 2002), and other sources.

- Not applicable

^a For aircraft, this is aviation gasoline. For all other categories, this is motor gasoline.^b Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel powered utility equipment.

Table E-9: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Passenger Cars (Percent of VMT)

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	LEV
1973-1974	100%	-	-	-	-
1975	20%	80%	-	-	-
1976-1977	15%	85%	-	-	-
1978-1979	10%	90%	-	-	-
1980	5%	88%	7%	-	-
1981	-	15%	85%	-	-
1982	-	14%	86%	-	-
1983	-	12%	88%	-	-
1984-1993	-	-	100%	-	-
1994	-	-	60%	40%	-
1995	-	-	20%	80%	-
1996	-	-	1%	97%	2%
1997	-	-	0.5%	96.5%	3%
1998	-	-	0.01%	87%	13%
1999	-	-	0.01%	67%	33%
2000	-	-	-	44%	56%
2001	-	-	-	3%	97%

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2002a), and EPA (2002b)

Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this annex.

- Not applicable

Table E-10: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks (Percent of VMT)

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	LEV
1973-1974	100%	-	-	-	-
1975	30%	70%	-	-	-
1976	20%	80%	-	-	-
1977-1978	25%	75%	-	-	-
1979-1980	20%	80%	-	-	-
1981	-	95%	5%	-	-
1982	-	90%	10%	-	-
1983	-	80%	20%	-	-
1984	-	70%	30%	-	-
1985	-	60%	40%	-	-
1986	-	50%	50%	-	-
1987-1993	-	5%	95%	-	-
1994	-	-	60%	40%	-
1995	-	-	20%	80%	-
1996	-	-	-	100%	-
1997	-	-	-	100%	-
1998	-	-	-	80%	20%
1999	-	-	-	57%	43%
2000	-	-	-	65%	35%
2001	-	-	-	1%	99%

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2002a), and EPA (2002b)

Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this annex.

- Not applicable.

Table E-11: Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles (Percent of VMT)

Model Years	Uncontrolled	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	LEV
≤1981	100%	-	-	-	-	-

1982-1984	95%	-	5%	-	-	-
1985-1986	-	95%	5%	-	-	-
1987	-	70%	15%	15%	-	-
1988-1989	-	60%	25%	15%	-	-
1990-1995	-	45%	30%	25%	-	-
1996	-	-	25%	10%	65%	-
1997	-	-	10%	5%	85%	-
1998	-	-	-	-	96%	4%
1999	-	-	-	-	78%	22%
2000	-	-	-	-	54%	46%
2001	-	-	-	-	64%	36%

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2002a), and EPA (2002b)

Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this annex.

- Not applicable

Table E-12: Control Technology Assignments for Diesel Highway and Motorcycle VMT

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	Model Years
Diesel Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks	
Uncontrolled	1966-1982
Moderate control	1983-1995
Advanced control	1996-2001
Heavy-Duty Diesel Vehicles	
Uncontrolled	1966-1972
Moderate control	1983-1995
Advanced control	1996-2001
Motorcycles	
Uncontrolled	1966-1995
Non-catalyst controls	1996-2001

Source: EPA (1998)

Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this annex.

Table E-13: Emission Factors for CH₄ and N₂O for Highway Vehicles

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	N ₂ O (g/mi)	CH ₄ (g/mi)	N ₂ O (g/km)	CH ₄ (g/km)
Gasoline Passenger Cars				
Low Emission Vehicles	0.0283	0.0402	0.0176	0.025
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.0463	0.0483	0.0288	0.030
EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.0816	0.0644	0.0507	0.040
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0518	0.1126	0.0322	0.070
Non-Catalyst	0.0166	0.1931	0.0103	0.120
Uncontrolled	0.0166	0.2173	0.0103	0.135
Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks				
Low Emission Vehicles	0.0354	0.0483	0.0220	0.030
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.0581	0.0563	0.0361	0.035
EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.1022	0.1126	0.0635	0.070
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0649	0.1448	0.0403	0.090
Non-Catalyst	0.0208	0.2253	0.0129	0.140
Uncontrolled	0.0208	0.2173	0.0129	0.135
Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles				
Low Emission Vehicles	0.1133	0.0708	0.0704	0.044
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.1394	0.0966	0.0866	0.060
EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.1746	0.1207	0.1085	0.075
Oxidation Catalyst ^b	0.1109	0.1448	0.0689	0.090
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0354	0.2012	0.0220	0.125

Uncontrolled	0.0354	0.4345	0.0220	0.270
Diesel Passenger Cars				
Advanced	0.0161	0.0161	0.0100	0.010
Moderate	0.0161	0.0161	0.0100	0.010
Uncontrolled	0.0161	0.0161	0.0100	0.010
Diesel Light-Duty Trucks				
Advanced	0.0322	0.0161	0.0200	0.010
Moderate	0.0322	0.0161	0.0200	0.010
Uncontrolled	0.0322	0.0161	0.0200	0.010
Diesel Heavy-Duty Vehicles				
Advanced	0.0483	0.0644	0.0300	0.040
Moderate	0.0483	0.0805	0.0300	0.050
Uncontrolled	0.0483	0.0966	0.0300	0.060
Motorcycles				
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0071	0.2092	0.0044	0.130
Uncontrolled	0.0071	0.4184	0.0044	0.260

Sources: IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), EPA (1998)

^a The categories “EPA Tier 0” and “EPA Tier 1” were substituted for the early three-way catalyst and advanced three-way catalyst categories, respectively, as defined in the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines. Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this annex.

^b The methane emission factor was assumed based on the oxidation catalyst value for gasoline light-duty trucks.

Table E-14: Emission Factors for CH₄ and N₂O for Alternative Fuel/Vehicle Technology Highway Vehicles

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	N₂O (g/mi)	CH₄ (g/mi)	N₂O (g/km)	CH₄ (g/km)
Light-duty Vehicles				
Methanol	0.063	0.014	0.039	0.009
CNG	0.113	0.914	0.070	0.568
LPG	0.152	0.609	0.094	0.378
Ethanol	0.076	0.043	0.047	0.027
Heavy-duty Vehicles				
Methanol	0.217	0.646	0.135	0.401
CNG	0.297	9.629	0.185	5.983
LNG	0.440	6.857	0.274	4.261
LPG	0.150	0.108	0.093	0.067
Ethanol	0.307	1.975	0.191	1.227
Buses				
Methanol	0.217	0.646	0.135	0.401
CNG	0.162	12.416	0.101	7.715
Ethanol	0.364	2.079	0.226	1.292

Source: Developed from Wang (1999), Lipman and Delucchi (2002), CRC (1997), Brasil and McMahon (1999), Norbeck, et al (1998), and DOE (2002a).

Table E-15: Emission Factors for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Non-Highway Mobile Combustion (g gas/kg fuel)

Vehicle Type/Fuel Type	N₂O	CH₄
Ships and Boats		
Residual	0.08	0.230
Distillate	0.08	0.230
Gasoline	0.08	0.230
Locomotives		
Residual	0.08	0.250
Diesel	0.08	0.250
Agricultural Equipment		

Gasoline Emission Controls

Below are the control technologies and emissions standards applicable to gasoline vehicles.

Non-catalyst

These emission controls were common in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks during model years (1973-1974) but phased out thereafter, in heavy-duty gasoline vehicles beginning in the mid-1980s, and in motorcycles beginning in 1996. This technology reduces hydrocarbon (HC) and carbon monoxide (CO) emissions through adjustments to ignition timing and air-fuel ratio, air injection into the exhaust manifold, and exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) valves, which also helps meet vehicle NO_x standards (EPA 1994b).

Oxidation catalyst

This control technology designation represents the introduction of the catalytic converter, and was the most common technology in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks made from 1975 to 1980 (cars) and 1975 to 1985 (trucks). This technology was also used in some heavy-duty gasoline vehicles between 1982 and the present. The two-way catalytic converter oxidizes HC and CO, significantly reducing emissions over 80 percent beyond non-catalyst-system capacity (EPA 1993). One reason unleaded gasoline was introduced in 1975 was due to the fact that oxidation catalysts cannot function properly with leaded gasoline (EPA 1994a).

EPA Tier 0

This emission standard from the Clean Air Act was met through the implementation of early “three-way” catalysts, therefore this technology was used in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks sold beginning in the early 1980s, and remained common until 1994. This more sophisticated emission control system improves the efficiency of the catalyst by converting CO and HC to CO₂ and H₂O, reducing NO_x to nitrogen and oxygen, and using an on-board diagnostic computer and oxygen sensor (EPA 1994a). In addition, this type of catalyst includes a carburetor with electronic “trim” (also known as a “closed-loop carburetor”) IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).¹ New cars with three-way catalysts met the Clean Air Act’s amended standards (enacted in 1977) of reducing HC to 0.41 g/mile by 1980, CO to 3.4 g/mile by 1981 and NO_x to 1.0 g/mile by 1981.

EPA Tier 1

This emission standard created through the 1990 amendments to the Clean Air Act called for a 40 percent reduction from the 1981 standard. This was met through the use of more advanced 3-way catalysts, and applied to light-duty gasoline vehicles beginning in 1994. This catalyst includes electronically controlled fuel injections and ignition timing, EGR, and air injection. The EPA Tier 1 standards reduce NO_x emissions to 0.6 g/mile for cars and 0.6 to 1.53 g/mile for trucks (EPA 1999).

Low Emission Vehicles (LEV)

This emission standard provides the highest mobile emission control in effect currently at the national level. Applied to light-duty gasoline passenger cars and trucks beginning in small numbers in the mid-1990’s, LEV includes multi-port fuel injection with adaptive learning, an advanced computer diagnostics systems and heated catalysts with secondary air injection IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). LEVs as defined here include transitional low-emission vehicles (TLEVs), low emission vehicles, ultra-low emission vehicles (ULEVs) and super ultra-low

¹ Electronic trim control systems change the ratio of fuel to air in the engine.

emission vehicles (SULEVs). In this analysis, all categories of LEVs are treated the same due to the fact that there are virtually no CH₄ or N₂O emission factor data for LEVs to distinguish among the different types of vehicles. Zero emission vehicles (ZEVs) are incorporated into the alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicle assessments.

Diesel Emission Controls

Below are the two levels of emissions control for diesel vehicles.

Moderate control

Improved injection timing technology and combustion system design for light- and heavy-duty diesel vehicles (generally in place in model years 1983 to 1995) are considered moderate control technologies (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). These controls were implemented to meet emission standards for diesel trucks and buses adopted by the EPA in 1985 to be met in 1991 and 1994.

Advanced control

EGR and modern electronic control of the fuel injection system are designated as advanced control technologies. These technologies provide diesel vehicles with the current highest level of emission control, and were used in model years beginning in 1996.

Supplemental Information on Transportation-Related GHG Emissions

Although not required in greenhouse gas inventory reporting, IPCC allows presentation of further details and data. As the transportation end-use sector is a large consumer of fossil fuels in the United States, a more detailed disaggregation of transportation activities contributing to emissions is provided. Based on information and data sources that are already available, the supplemental data presented below are an effort to present this more detailed disaggregation.

Transportation-related sources include highway vehicles, aircraft, boats and ships, locomotives, and other transportation and mobile sources, as described in this annex. Transportation is typically defined as including pipelines (which are stationary), but not construction equipment, agricultural equipment, and certain other mobile sources that do not provide transportation *per se*². Conversely, the term “mobile sources” does not include pipeline transportation, but does include construction equipment, agricultural equipment, and certain other mobile sources. Highway, rail, aviation, and waterborne vehicles all fall under both terms. This annex primarily uses the term transportation to include all transportation-related and mobile sources in this one category.

The estimates in Table E-21, Table E-22, and Table E-23 and illustrated in Figure E-1 were prepared by re-aggregating the estimates presented in Tables 1-14 and 2-7, Chapter 3, and Annex K so that each transportation mode and/or vehicle type is presented with its total greenhouse gas emissions, rather than its emissions disaggregated by fuel type or greenhouse gas. For the cases of Table E-1, Table E-23 and Figure E-1, DOE (1993 through 2002) and FHWA (1996 through 2002) were also used to allocate rail and heavy duty highway vehicle (trucks and buses) between freight and passenger categories. Otherwise, these tables and figures are dependent on the methodologies presented in Annex A (for CO₂), Chapter 3 and Annex K (for HFCs), and earlier in this Annex (for CH₄ and N₂O).

² Transportation is frequently defined in official surveys, etc. as the movement of persons or goods from one address to another address, and thus excludes many of the above-listed and other mobile sources.

The methodologies used to aggregate all the transportation greenhouse gas emissions data in Table E-21 are summarized here. The HFC emissions, which come from the coolants for air conditioning or refrigeration used in vehicles, are estimated, as indicated in Annex K, by calculating the number and types of coolant equipment in use and estimating the emissions from leakage during the equipment life and disposal. The CH₄ and N₂O emissions are estimated, as indicated in the first part of this annex, by compiling the activity-level data and estimating emissions based on emission factors for each vehicle type. For non-road vehicles, the activity data is based on fuel consumption. However, for highway vehicles, an accurate estimate of methane and nitrous oxide emissions is dependent not just on the fuel consumption, but also on the type of vehicle and its associated criteria pollutant control technologies. Therefore, the methodology involves obtaining Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) data, assigning that activity by both fuel type and vehicle type, using the age distribution (and associated control technologies based on vehicle age) for the U.S. fleet. Then very specific emission factors can be used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions based on the allocated activity level data. The CO₂ emissions are first estimated, as indicated in Annex A, by calculating fuel consumption for the transportation sector by fuel type and vehicle type, and estimating CO₂ emissions based on the carbon content of the fuel (see Table A-16 and Table A-17). However, identifying CO₂ emissions based on fuel type divides natural transportation categories such as passenger cars or buses into multiple line items (by listing emissions from gasoline separately from diesel or natural gas). The tables in this annex reorganize the CO₂ data according to the different modes of passenger vehicles, freight, and transit, and provide more detailed information on the activities that comprise these emissions. Table E-21 aggregates all greenhouse gases from transportation activities by mode.

Public Passenger Transportation

This section presents greenhouse gas emission estimates for “public passenger transportation”, using a broad definition that includes all passenger vehicles available to the public for a fare or ticket price (or similar free services, such as many school buses or local shuttle buses). This category thus includes buses, passenger rail, and commercial aviation, as shown in Figure E-3. This category was developed to complement the previous two categories, passenger cars/trucks and freight, with the other main segment of the sector, public passenger transportation.

Uncertainty

Much of the data presented in this annex, such as the estimates from CO₂ emissions from transportation activities, are considered, in the aggregate, to be fairly accurate. Several of the tables in this annex represent the reorganization of data presented elsewhere in the Inventory, and this reorganization may introduce additional uncertainties in the disaggregated data. Minor uncertainty exists in the estimates of freight and public passenger transport emissions, where additional data from DOE (1993 through 2002) was used to allocate the passenger/freight split of rail emissions and to disaggregate buses. The data presented regarding daily travel, long-distance travel, and commodity flows all present the direct estimates made by their respective surveys. As the original surveys relied on survey and sampling techniques and attempted to collect detailed, disaggregate data, some uncertainty can be associated with their original estimates.

Diesel	13.2	13.6	13.8	14.6	14.6	16.0	17.8	1.0%	34.7%
Lubricants	11.7	10.9	11.5	12.0	12.1	12.0	12.1	0.6%	3.0%
Mobile Air Conditioners	0.0	9.8	12.9	15.7	18.2	20.4	22.5	1.2%	NA
Refrigerated Transport	0.0	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.4	4.9	0.3%	NA
Other*	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0%	17.1%
Total	1,527.8	1,696.1	1,708.8	1,738.5	1,799.8	1,851.1	1,869.0	100.0%	22.3%

* "Other" includes snowmobiles, small gasoline-powered utility equipment, heavy-duty gasoline-powered utility equipment, and heavy-duty diesel-powered utility equipment.

NA: Not Applicable

Source: Derived from Table 1-14, Table 2-7, Table E-16, and Table E-17. Greenhouse gas estimates for each mode were assigned to fuel types using fuel consumption data.

Note: For fuel types other than jet fuel, fuel consumption data by vehicle type and transportation mode were used to allocate emissions by fuel type calculated for the transportation end-use sector. The difference between total U.S. jet fuel consumption (as reported by EIA) and civilian air carrier consumption for both domestic and international flights (as reported by DOT and BEA) plus military jet fuel consumption is reported as "other" under the jet fuel category in Table 2-7, and includes such fuel uses as blending with heating oils and fuel used for chartered aircraft flights.

Figure E-1: 2001 Domestic Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Vehicle Type (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

*Other includes non-highway sources not in other categories, such as construction and agricultural equipment, pipelines, lubricants, mobile air conditioners, and refrigerated transport but does not include bunkers.

Source: Table E-21.

Table E-22: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Domestic Freight Transportation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

By Mode	1990	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	% Change 1990-2001
Trucking	206.5	249.3	260.5	272.5	287.4	297.8	301.3	46%
Rail	26.4	30.2	29.9	30.7	32.3	32.0	32.4	22%
Refrigerated Transport	0.0	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.4	4.9	NA
Waterborne	37.8	40.1	25.6	19.6	29.8	50.7	49.2	30%
Pipeline	38.3	41.1	43.3	37.3	37.8	37.7	36.3	-5%
Total	309.1	362.7	361.9	363.3	391.1	422.6	424.0	37%

NA Signifies data not applicable, as there were no HFC emissions allocated to the transport sector in 1990, and thus a growth rate cannot be calculated.

Note: Data from DOE (1993 through 2002) was used to allocate the passenger/freight split of rail emissions.

Figure E-2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Domestic Freight Transportation by Mode (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Table E-23: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Public Passenger Transportation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Vehicle Type / Fuel Type	1990	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Passenger Rail	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3
Electricity	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Diesel	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Buses	7.5	8.3	8.5	8.8	9.9	9.8	9.0
Gasoline	1.6	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5
Diesel	5.8	7.3	7.6	7.9	9.0	8.7	8.1

AFVs	0.0		0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4
Commercial Aviation	120.0		126.8	131.3	133.4	139.2	143.0	133.5
Jet Fuel	120.0		126.8	131.3	133.4	139.2	143.0	133.5
Total	128.1		135.7	140.5	142.9	149.8	153.5	143.3

Source: Table 1-14.

Note: Data from DOE (1993 through 2002) was used to disaggregate emissions from rail and buses.

Figure E-3: Total Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Public Passenger Transportation by Vehicle Type (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Figure E-1: 2001 Domestic GHG Emissions by Vehicle Type (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

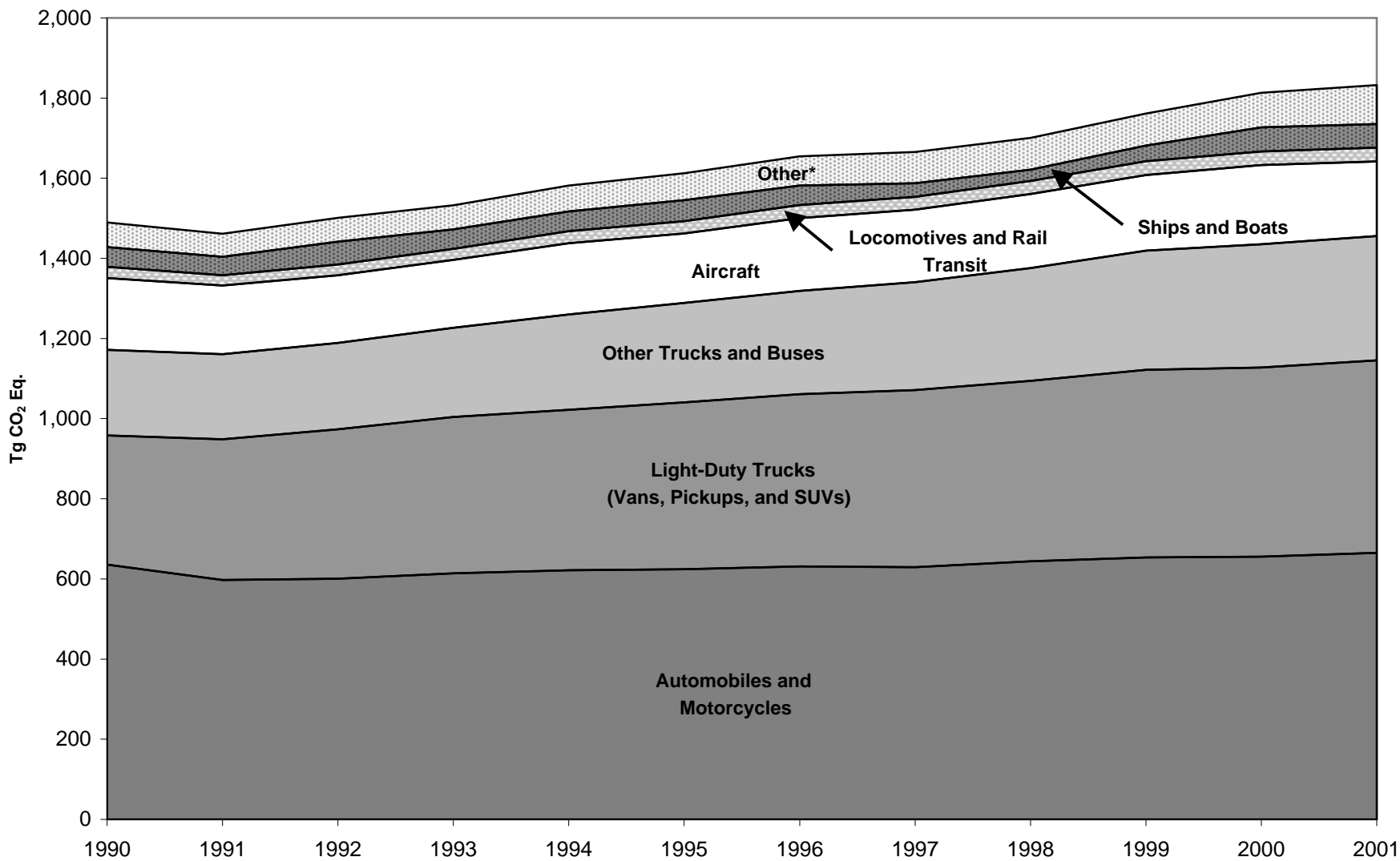
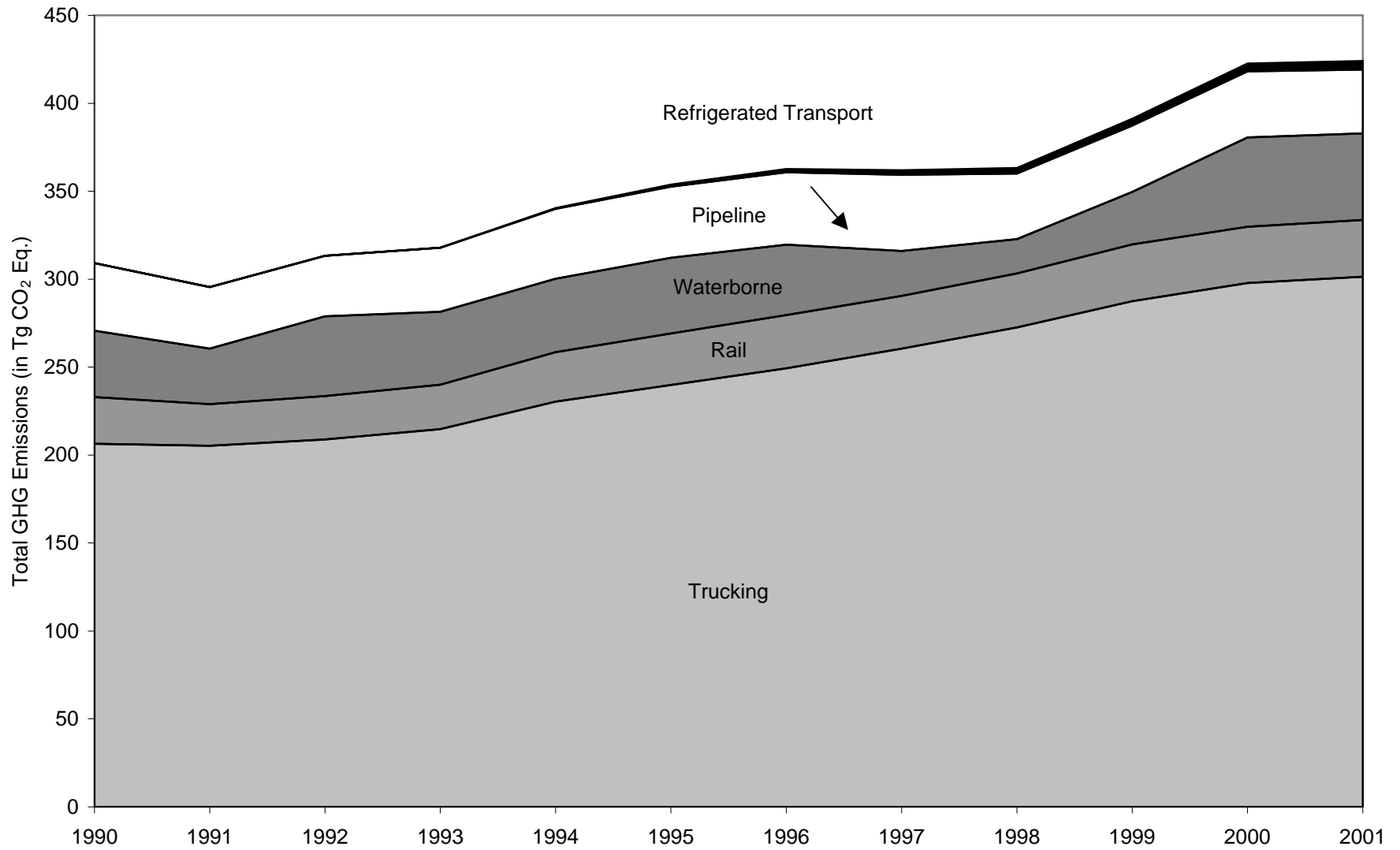
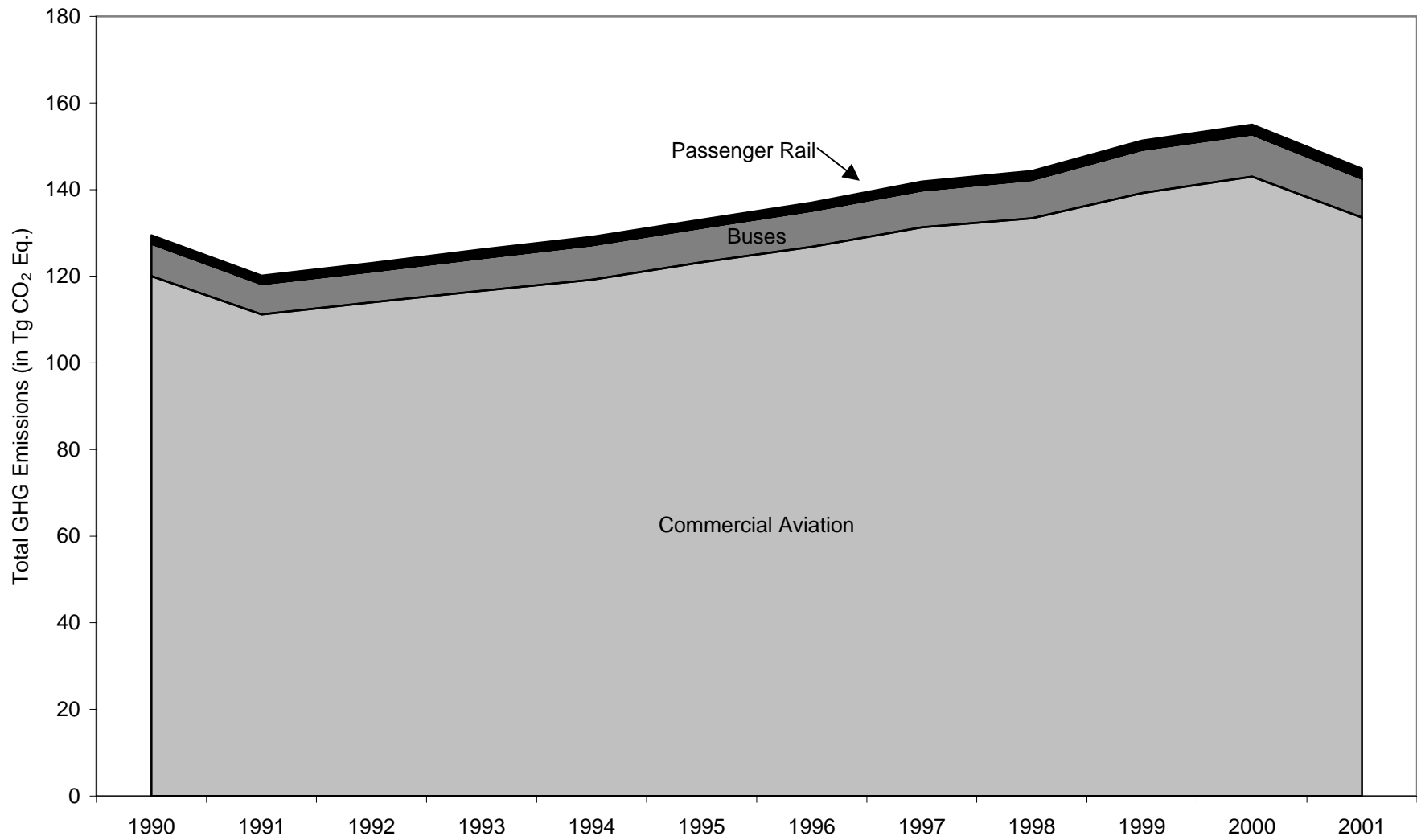


Figure E-2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Domestic Freight Transportation by Mode (Tg CO₂ Eq.)



**Figure E-3: Total Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Public Passenger Transportation by Vehicle Type
(Tg CO₂ Eq.)**



ANNEX F

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining

The methodology for estimating methane emissions from coal mining consists of two distinct steps. The first step addresses emissions from underground mines. For these mines, emissions are estimated on a mine-by-mine basis and then are summed to determine total emissions. The second step of the analysis involves estimating methane emissions for surface mines and post-mining activities. In contrast to the methodology for underground mines, which uses mine-specific data, the surface mine and post-mining activities analysis consists of multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific emission factors.

Step 1: Estimate Methane Liberated and Methane Emitted from Underground Mines

Underground mines generate methane from ventilation systems and from degasification systems. Some mines recover and use methane generated from degasification systems, thereby reducing emissions to the atmosphere. Total methane emitted from underground mines is equal to the methane liberated from ventilation systems, plus the methane liberated from degasification systems, minus methane recovered and used.

Step 1.1: Estimate Methane Liberated from Ventilation Systems

All coal mines with detectable methane emissions¹ use ventilation systems to ensure that methane levels remain within safe concentrations. Many coal mines do not have detectable levels of methane, while others emit several million cubic feet per day (MMCFD) from their ventilation systems. On a quarterly basis, the U.S. Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) measures methane emissions levels at underground mines. MSHA maintains a database of measurement data from all underground mines with detectable levels of methane in their ventilation air. Based on the four quarterly measurements, MSHA estimates average daily methane liberated at each of the underground mines with detectable emissions.

For the years 1990 through 1996, and 1998 through 2001, MSHA emissions data were obtained for a large but incomplete subset of all mines with detectable emissions. This subset includes mines emitting at least 0.1 MMCFD for some years and at least 0.5 MMCFD for other years, as shown in Table F-1. Well over 90 percent of all ventilation emissions were concentrated in these subsets. For 1997, the complete MSHA database for all 586 mines with detectable methane emissions was obtained. These mines were assumed to account for 100 percent of methane liberated from underground mines. Using the complete database from 1997, the proportion of total emissions accounted for by mines emitting less than 0.1 MMCFD or 0.5 MMCFD was estimated (see Table F-1). The proportion was then applied to the years 1990 through 2001 to account for the less than 10 percent of ventilation emissions coming from mines without MSHA data.

For 1990 through 1999, average daily methane emissions were multiplied by 365 to determine the annual emissions for each mine. For 2000 and 2001, MSHA provided quarterly emissions. The average daily methane emissions were multiplied by the number of days corresponding to the number of quarters the mine vent was operating. For example, if the mine vent was operational in one out of the four quarters, the average daily methane emissions were multiplied by 92 days. Total ventilation emissions for a particular year were estimated by summing emissions from individual mines.

Table F-1: Mine-Specific Data Used to Estimate Ventilation Emissions

Year	Individual Mine Data Used
1990	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1991	1990 Emissions Factors Used Instead of Mine-Specific Data

¹ MSHA records coal mine methane readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) methane. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

1992	1990 Emissions Factors Used Instead of Mine-Specific Data
1993	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1994	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1995	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.5 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 94.1% of Total)*
1996	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.5 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 94.1% of Total)*
1997	All Mines with Detectable Emissions (Assumed to Account for 100% of Total)
1998	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
1999	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
2000	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*
2001	All Mines Emitting at Least 0.1 MMCFD (Assumed to Account for 97.8% of Total)*

* Factor derived from a complete set of individual mine data collected for 1997.

Step 1.2: Estimate Methane Liberated from Degassing Systems

Coal mines use several different types of degassing systems to remove methane, including vertical wells and horizontal boreholes to recover methane prior to mining of the coal seam. Gob wells and cross-measure boreholes recover methane from the overburden (i.e., GOB area) after mining of the seam (primarily in longwall mines).

MSHA collects information about the presence and type of degassing systems in some mines, but does not collect quantitative data on the amount of methane liberated. Thus, degassing emissions were estimated on a mine-by-mine basis based on other sources of available data. Many of the coal mines employing degassing systems have provided EPA with information regarding methane liberated from their degassing systems. For these mines, this reported information was used as the estimate. In other cases in which mines sell methane recovered from degassing systems to a pipeline, gas sales were used to estimate methane liberated from degassing systems (see Step 1.3). Finally, for those mines that do not sell methane to a pipeline and have not provided information to EPA, methane liberated from degassing systems was estimated based on the type of system employed. For example, for coal mines employing gob wells and horizontal boreholes, the methodology assumes that degassing emissions account for 40 percent of total methane liberated from the mine.

Step 1.3: Estimate Methane Recovered from Degassing Systems and Used (Emissions Avoided)

In 2001, ten active coal mines had methane recovery and use projects and sold the recovered methane to a pipeline. One coal mine also used some recovered methane in a thermal dryer in addition to selling gas to a pipeline. In order to calculate emissions avoided from pipeline sales, information was needed regarding the amount of gas recovered and the number of years in advance of mining that wells were drilled. Several state agencies provided gas sales data, which were used to estimate emissions avoided for these projects. Additionally, coal mine operators provided information on gas sales and/or the number of years in advance of mining. Emissions avoided were attributed to the year in which the coal seam was mined. For example, if a coal mine recovered and sold methane using a vertical well drilled five years in advance of mining, the emissions avoided associated with those gas sales (cumulative production) were attributed to the well up to the time it was mined through (e.g., five years of gas production). Where individual well data is not available, estimated percentages of the operator's annual gas sales within the field around the coal mine are attributed to emissions avoidance. For some mines, individual well data were used to assign gas sales to the appropriate emissions avoided year. In most cases, coal mine operators provided this information, which was then used to estimate emissions avoided for a particular year. Additionally, several state agencies provided production data for individual wells.

Step 2: Estimate Methane Emitted from Surface Mines and Post-Mining Activities

Mine-specific data were not available for estimating methane emissions from surface coal mines or for post-mining activities. For surface mines and post-mining activities, basin-specific coal production was multiplied by a basin-specific emission factor to determine methane emissions.

Step 2.1: Define the Geographic Resolution of the Analysis and Collect Coal Production Data

The first step in estimating methane emissions from surface mining and post-mining activities was to define the geographic resolution of the analysis and to collect coal production data at that level of resolution. The analysis was conducted by coal basin as defined in Table F-2, which presents coal basin definitions by basin and by state.

The Energy Information Administration's (EIA) Coal Industry Annual reports state- and county-specific underground and surface coal production by year. To calculate production by basin, the state level data were grouped into coal basins using the basin definitions listed in Table F-2. For two states—West Virginia and Kentucky—county-level production data was used for the basin assignments because coal production occurred from geologically distinct coal basins within these states. Table F-3 presents the coal production data aggregated by basin.

Step 2.2: Estimate Emissions Factors for Each Emissions Type

Emission factors for surface mined coal were developed from the *in situ* methane content of the surface coal in each basin. Based on an analysis presented in EPA (1993), surface mining emission factors were estimated to be from 1 to 3 times the average *in situ* methane content in the basin. For this analysis, the surface mining emission factor was determined to be twice the *in situ* methane content in the basin. Furthermore, the post-mining emission factors used were estimated to be 25 to 40 percent of the average *in situ* methane content in the basin. For this analysis, the post-mining emission factor was determined to be 32.5 percent of the *in situ* methane content in the basin. Table F-4 presents the average *in situ* content for each basin, along with the resulting emission factor estimates.

Step 2.3: Estimate Methane Emitted

The total amount of methane emitted was calculated by multiplying the coal production in each basin by the appropriate emission factors.

Total annual methane emissions are equal to the sum of underground mine emissions plus surface mine emissions plus post-mining emissions. Table F-5 and Table F-6 present estimates of methane liberated, used, and emitted for 1990 through 2001. Table F-7 provides emissions by state.

Table F-2: Coal Basin Definitions by Basin and by State

Basin	States
Northern Appalachian Basin	Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia North
Central Appalachian Basin	Kentucky East, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia South
Warrior Basin	Alabama, Mississippi
Illinois Basin	Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky West
South West and Rockies Basin	Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah
North Great Plains Basin	Montana, North Dakota, Wyoming
West Interior Basin	Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Texas
Northwest Basin	Alaska, Washington
State	Basin
Alabama	Warrior Basin
Alaska	Northwest Basin
Arizona	South West and Rockies Basin
Arkansas	West Interior Basin
California	South West and Rockies Basin
Colorado	South West and Rockies Basin
Illinois	Illinois Basin
Indiana	Illinois Basin
Iowa	West Interior Basin
Kansas	West Interior Basin
Kentucky East	Central Appalachian Basin
Kentucky West	Illinois Basin
Louisiana	West Interior Basin
Maryland	Northern Appalachian Basin
Mississippi	Warrior Basin
Missouri	West Interior Basin
Montana	North Great Plains Basin
New Mexico	South West and Rockies Basin
North Dakota	North Great Plains Basin
Ohio	Northern Appalachian Basin
Oklahoma	West Interior Basin

New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wisconsin. Emission estimates are not given for 1991 and 1992 because underground mine data was not available for those years.

ANNEX G

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems

The following steps were used to estimate methane emissions from natural gas systems.

Step 1: Calculate Emission Estimates for Base Year 1992 Using GRI/EPA Study

The first step in estimating methane emissions from natural gas systems was to develop a detailed base year estimate of emissions. The study by GRI/EPA (1996) divides the industry into four stages to construct a detailed emission inventory for the year 1992. These stages include: field production, processing, transmission and storage (i.e., both underground and liquefied gas storage), and distribution. This study produced emission factors and activity data for over 100 different emission sources within the natural gas system. Emissions for 1992 were estimated by multiplying activity levels by emission factors for each system component and then summing by stage. Since publication, the EPA has updated activity data for some of the components in the system. Table G-1 displays the 1992 GRI/EPA activity levels and emission factors for venting and flaring from the field production stage, and the current EPA activity levels and emission factors. These data are shown to illustrate the kind of data used to calculate emissions from all stages.

Step 2: Collect Aggregate Statistics on Main Driver Variables

As detailed data on each of the over 100 sources were not available for the period 1990 through 2001, activity levels were estimated using aggregate statistics on key drivers, including: number of producing wells (API 2002, EIA 2002d), number of gas plants (AGA 1990 through 1998; OGJ 1999 through 2002), miles of transmission pipeline (OPS 2002a), miles of distribution pipeline (OPS 2002b), miles of distribution services (OPS 2002b), energy consumption (EIA 2001, 2002c, 2002f). Data on the distribution of gas mains and services by material type was not available for 1990 through 1992 from OPS. For those years, the distribution by type was back calculated from 1993 using compound growth rates determined for the years 1993 through 2000. Table G-2 provides the activity levels of some of the key drivers in the natural gas analysis.

Step 3: Estimate Emission Factor Changes Over Time

In the past, emissions factors were reduced at a rate of 0.2 percent per year such that by year 2020, emissions factors would have declined by 5 percent from 1995. These reductions were made to reflect underlying technological improvements through both innovation and normal replacement of equipment. However, the analysis already incorporates the emissions reductions from some of these technological improvements as reported by EPA's Natural Gas STAR Partners. Thus, to eliminate this double counting, the emissions factors were kept constant throughout the time series for this year's Inventory.

Step 4: Estimate Emissions for Each Year and Stage

Emissions from each stage of the natural gas industry were estimated by multiplying the activity factors by the appropriate emission factors, summing all sources for each stage, and then subtracting the Natural Gas STAR emission reductions. Methane reductions from the Natural Gas STAR program for the years 1990 through 2000 are presented in Table G-3. Emission reductions by project are reported by industry partners using actual measurement data or equipment-specific emission factors. Before incorporating the reductions into the Inventory, quality assurance and quality control checks are undertaken to identify errors, inconsistencies, or irregular data. Total emissions were estimated by adding the emission estimates from each stage. Table G-4 illustrates emission estimates for venting and flaring emissions from the field production stage using this methodology. Table G-5 presents total natural gas production and associated methane emissions.

Table G-1: 1992 Data and Emissions (Mg) for Venting and Flaring from Natural Gas Field Production Stage

Activity	GRI/EPA Values			EPA Adjusted Values		
	Activity Data	Emission Factor	Emissions	Activity Data	Emission Factor	Emissions
Drilling and Well Completion						
Completion Flaring	844 compl/yr	733 Scf/comp	12	400 compl/yr	733 scf/comp	6
Normal Operations						
Pneumatic Device Vents	249,111 controllers	345 Scfd/device	602,291	249,111 controllers	345 scfd/device	602,291
Chemical Injection Pumps	16,971 active pumps	248 Scfd/pump	29,501	16,971 active pumps	248 scfd/pump	29,502
Kimray Pumps	11,050,000 MMscf/yr	368 Scf/MMscf	78,024	7,380,194 MMscf/yr	992 scf/MMscf	140,566
Dehydrator Vents	12,400,000 MMscf/yr	276 Scf/MMscf	65,608	8,200,215 MMscf/yr	276 scf/MMscf	43,387
Compressor Exhaust Vented						
Gas Engines	27,460 MMHPhr	0.24 Scf/HPhr	126,536	27,460 MMHPhr	0.24 scf/HPhr	126,535
Routine Maintenance						
Well Workovers						
Gas Wells	9,392 w.o./yr	2,454 scfy/w.o.	443	9,392 w.o./yr	2,454 scfy/w.o.	443
Well Clean Ups (LP Gas Wells)	114,139 LP gas wells	49,570 scfy/LP well	108,631	114,139 LP gas wells	49,570 scfy/LP well	108,631
Blowdowns						
Vessel BD	255,996 vessels	78 scfy/vessel	383	242,306 vessels	78 scfy/vessel	363
Pipeline BD	340,000 miles (gath)	309 scfy/mile	2,017	340,200 miles (gath)	309 scfy/mile	2,018
Compressor BD	17,112 compressors	3,774 scfy/comp	1,240	17,112 compressors	3,774 scfy/comp	1,240
Compressor Starts	17,112 compressors	8,443 scfy/comp	2,774	17,112 compressors	8,443 scfy/comp	2,774
Upsets						
Pressure Relief Valves	529,440 PRV	34.0 scfy/PRV	346	529,440 PRV	34.0 scfy/PRV	346
ESD	1,115 platforms	256,888 scfy/plat	5,499	1,372 platforms	256,888 scfy/plat	6,767
Mishaps	340,000 miles	669 scfy/mile	4,367	340,200 miles	669 scfy/mile	4,370

Table G-2: Activity Factors for Key Drivers

Variable	Units	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Transmission Pipelines Length	miles	291,990	296,947	292,186	294,304	302,706	296,581	293,774	278,269
Wells									
GSAM Appalachia Wells*	# wells	120,443	122,805	122,700	120,037	117,878	118,723	116,702	116,702
GSAM N Central Associated Wells*	# wells	3,780	3,641	3,417	3,409	3,361	2,874	2,439	2,278
GSAM N Central Non-Associated Wells*	# wells	3,277	7,234	7,844	8,910	8,917	8,800	9,113	9,113
GSAM Rest of US Wells*	# wells	145,380	168,502	171,267	182,024	190,134	174,898	180,424	180,424
GSAM Rest of US Associated Wells*	# wells	270,958	264,837	264,807	264,385	254,848	251,686	245,967	244,557
Appalch. + N. Central Non-Assoc. + Rest of US	# wells	269,100	298,541	301,811	310,971	316,929	302,421	306,239	306,239
Platforms									
Gulf of Mexico Off-shore Platforms	# platforms	3,798	3,868	3,846	3,846	3,963	3,975	4,019	4,009
Rest of U.S. (offshore platforms)	# platforms	24	23	24	23	23	23	23	23
N. Central Non-Assoc. + Rest of US Wells	# platforms	148,657	175,736	179,111	190,934	199,051	183,698	189,537	189,537
Gas Plants									
Number of Gas Plants	# gas plants	761	675	623	615	558	581	585	570
Distribution Services									
Steel – Unprotected	# of services	5,500,993	6,151,653	5,775,613	5,518,795	5,463,253	5,751,250	5,676,582	5,855,612
Steel - Protected	# of services	19,916,202	21,002,455	18,593,770	19,078,467	18,478,344	18,310,719	17,775,878	17,828,261
Plastic	# of services	16,269,414	26,044,545	26,187,536	27,800,401	28,629,388	28,796,952	31,644,014	33,144,535
Copper	# of services	1,379,237	1,445,380	1,519,625	1,498,050	1,464,019	1,458,518	1,434,091	1,395,232
Total	# of services	43,065,846	54,644,033	52,076,544	53,895,713	54,035,004	54,317,439	56,530,565	58,223,640
Distribution Mains									
Steel – Unprotected	miles	91,267	94,058	88,412	85,166	86,639	84,534	82,817	81,258
Steel – Protected	miles	491,120	503,288	484,526	479,278	484,963	459,298	468,932	484,451
Cast Iron	miles	52,644	50,625	51,542	47,669	47,587	45,865	44,736	47,443
Plastic	miles	202,269	353,735	350,699	385,373	400,627	415,210	446,554	504,199
Total	miles	837,300	1,001,706	975,179	997,486	1,019,816	1,004,907	1,043,039	1,117,351

* GSAM (Gas Systems Analysis Model) is a natural gas supply, demand, and transportation model used by the Federal Energy Technology Center of the U.S. Department of Energy (GSAM 1997).

Table G-3. Methane reductions from the Natural Gas STAR program (Tg)

Process	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Production	.01	0.09	0.17	0.22	0.26	0.29	0.31	0.33
Processing	--	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03
Transmission and Storage	--	0.12	0.10	0.13	0.18	0.22	0.27	0.34
Distribution	--	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02

Table G-4: CH₄ Emission Estimates for Venting and Flaring from the Field Production Stage (Mg)

Activity	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Drilling and Well Completion								
Completion Flaring	5.5	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.5	6.2	6.3	6.3
Normal Operations								
Pneumatic Device Vents	589,673	697,087	710,474	757,372	789,570	728,669	751,831	751,831
Chemical Injection Pumps	37,761	45,545	46,547	49,768	51,783	47,943	49,476	49,476
Kimray Pumps	137,344	152,210	153,856	158,434	161,408	154,106	156,002	156,002
Dehydrator Vents	42,392	46,981	47,489	48,902	49,820	47,566	48,151	48,151
Compressor Exhaust Vented Gas Engines	123,884	146,451	149,263	159,116	165,881	153,086	157,952	157,952
Routine Maintenance								
Well Workovers Gas Wells	543	602	609	627	639	610	617	617
Well Clean Ups (LP Gas Wells)	103,451	114,649	115,888	119,337	121,577	116,076	117,505	117,505
Blowdowns								
Vessel BD	265	307	312	329	340	318	326	326
Pipeline BD	1,749	1,918	1,938	2,005	2,052	1,956	1,988	1,988
Compressor BD	1,598	1,816	1,840	1,927	1,988	1,860	1,900	1,899
Compressor Starts	3,575	4,062	4,116	4,311	4,448	4,162	4,250	4,249
Upsets								
Pressure Relief Valves	338	400	408	435	453	418	431	431
ESD	6,764	6,882	6,848	6,843	7,048	7,069	7,146	7,129
Mishaps	947	1,038	1,049	1,085	1,111	1,058	1,076	1,076

Table G-5: U.S. Total Natural Gas Production (Trillion Ft³/yr) and Associated CH₄ Emissions (Gg)

Activity	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Production	17.8	18.6	18.9	18.9	19.0	18.8	19.0	19.4
CH ₄ Emissions from Production	1,445	1,583	1,537	1,577	1,605	1,463	1,488	1,467

ANNEX H

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems

The methodology for estimating methane emissions from petroleum systems is based on the 1999 EPA draft report, *Estimates of Methane Emissions from the U.S. Oil Industry* (EPA 1999) and the study, *Methane Emissions from the U.S. Petroleum Industry* (Radian 1996). Seventy activities that emit methane from petroleum systems were examined for these reports. Most of the activities analyzed involve crude oil production field operations, which accounted for 97 percent of total oil industry emissions. Crude transportation and refining accounted for the remaining emissions at about one and two percent each, respectively.

The following steps were taken to estimate methane emissions from petroleum systems.

Step 1: Determine Emission Factors for all Activities

The emission factors for sixty-nine of the seventy activities for 1995 are taken from the 1999 EPA draft report, which contains the most recent and comprehensive determination of methane emission factors for the seventy methane emitting activities in the oil industry. For the one activity, gas engines in the production sector, the emission factor is taken from Radian (1996). The emission factors determined for 1995 were assumed to be representative of emissions from each source type over the period 1990 through 2001. Therefore, the same emission factors are used for each year throughout this period.

Step 2: Determine Activity Levels for Each Year

Activity levels change from year to year. Some factors change in proportion to crude oil rates: production, transportation, refinery runs. Some change in proportion to the number of facilities: oil wells, petroleum refineries. Some factors change proportional to both rate and number of facilities.

For fifty-seven activities, activity levels for 1995 are taken from EPA (1999). For the remaining thirteen activities, the activity levels for 1993 are taken from Radian (1996). These thirteen activity levels were derived from field data collected in 1993, along with 1993 crude oil production and number of wells.

For both sets of data, a determination is made on a case-by-case basis as to which measure of petroleum industry activity best reflects the change in annual activity relative to the base years (1993 and 1995). Publicly reported data from the Minerals Management Service (MMS), Energy Information Administration (EIA), American Petroleum Institute (API), and the Oil & Gas Journal (O&GJ) are used to extrapolate the activity levels from the base year to each year between 1990 and 2001. Data used include total domestic crude oil production, number of domestic crude oil wells, total imports and exports of crude oil, and total petroleum refinery crude runs. The activity data for the transportation sector were not yet available. In this case, it was assumed that all the crude oil that is transported goes to refineries. Therefore, the activity data for the refining sector was used also for the transportation sector. For a small number of sources, 2001 data were not yet available. In these cases, the 2000 activity factors were used. In the few cases where no data was located, oil industry data based on expert judgment was used.

Step 3: Estimate Methane Emissions for Each Activity for Each Year

Annual emissions from each of the 70 petroleum system activities were estimated by multiplying the activity data for each year by the corresponding emission factor. These annual emissions for each activity were then summed to estimate the total annual methane emissions. For the production sector, the amount of emission reduction achieved by the EPA's Natural Gas STAR program was subtracted from the estimated production emissions. Table H-1, Table H-2 and Table H-3 provide 2001 activity factors, emission factors and emission estimates.

Methane emissions from the Natural Gas STAR program for the years 1990 through 2001 are presented in Table H-4. Table H-5 provides a summary of emission estimates for the years 1990 through 2001.

Table H-2: 2001 CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Transportation

Activity/Equipment	Emission		Activity		Emissions (Bcf/yr)
	Factor	Units	Factor	Units	
Vented Emissions					0.216
Tanks	0.021	scf CH ₄ /yr/bbl of crude delivered to refineries	5,522	MMbbl crude feed/yr	0.114
Truck Loading	0.520	scf CH ₄ /yr/bbl of crude transported by truck	45.3	MMbbl crude feed/yr	0.024
Marine Loading	2.544	scf CH ₄ /1000 gal. crude marine loadings	23,713,616	1,000 gal./yr loaded	0.060
Rail Loading	0.520	scf CH ₄ /yr/bbl of crude transported by rail	7.4	MMbbl. Crude by rail/yr	0.004
Pump Station Maintenance	36.80	scf CH ₄ /station/yr	490	No. of pump stations	0.000
Pipeline Pigging	39	scfd of CH ₄ /pig station	980	No. of pig stations	0.014
Fugitive Emissions					0.050
Pump Stations	25	scfCH ₄ /mile/yr.	48,990	No. of miles of crude p/l	0.001
Pipelines	0	scf CH ₄ /bbl crude transported by pipeline	7,551	MM bbl crude piped	0.000
Floating Roof Tanks	58,965	scf CH ₄ /floating roof tank/yr.	824	No. of floating roof tanks	0.049
Combustion Emissions					0.000
Pump Engine Drivers	0.24	scf CH ₄ /hp-hr	NA	No. of hp-hrs	NA
Heaters	0.521	scf CH ₄ /bbl.burned	NA	No. of bbl. Burned	NA
Total					0.283

ANNEX I

Methodology for Estimating CO₂ Emissions from Municipal Solid Waste Combustion

Emissions of CO₂ from municipal solid waste (MSW) combustion include CO₂ generated by the combustion of plastics, synthetic rubber and synthetic fibers in MSW, and combustion of synthetic rubber and carbon black in tires. Combustion of MSW also results in emissions of N₂O. The methodology for calculating emissions from each of these waste combustion sources is described in this Annex.

CO₂ from Plastics Combustion

In the *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States* reports (EPA 2000c, 2002), the flows of plastics in the U.S. waste stream are reported for seven resin categories. The 2000 quantity generated, recovered, and discarded for each resin is shown in Table I-1. The EPA reports do not provide estimates for individual materials landfilled and combusted, although they do provide such an estimate for the waste stream as a whole. To estimate the quantity of plastics landfilled and combusted, total discards were apportioned based on the proportions of landfilling and combustion for the entire U.S. waste stream in 1998 (76 percent and 24 percent, respectively). Emissions for 1990 through 1998 were calculated using this approach; when distribution by resin category was not reported, total values were apportioned according to 1998 distribution ratios. Generation and recovery figures for 1999 are interpolated from 1998 and 2000 data, while 2001 figures are extrapolated from the year 2000 using the observed growth rate from 1998 to 2000.

Table I-1: 2000 Plastics in the Municipal Solid Waste Stream by Resin (Gg)

Waste Pathway	PET	HDPE	PVC	LDPE/ LLDPE	PP	PS	Other	Total
Generation	2,259	4,382	1,261	5,207	3,039	2,068	4,200	22,417
Recovery	390	381	0	136	9	0	299	1,216
Discard	1,869	4,001	1,261	5,071	3,030	2,068	3,901	21,201
Landfill	1,420	3,041	958	3,854	2,303	1,572	2,965	16,113
Combustion	449	960	303	1,217	727	496	936	5,088
Recovery*	17%	9%	0%	3%	0%	0%	7%	5%
Discard*	83%	91%	100%	97%	100%	100%	93%	95%
Landfill*	63%	69%	76%	74%	76%	76%	71%	72%
Combustion*	20%	22%	24%	23%	24%	24%	22%	23%

*As a percent of waste generation.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Abbreviations: PET (polyethylene terephthalate), HDPE (high density polyethylene), PVC (polyvinyl chloride), LDPE/LLDPE (linear low density polyethylene), PP (polypropylene), PS (polystyrene).

Fossil fuel-based CO₂ emissions for 2000 were calculated as the product of plastic combusted, carbon content, and fraction oxidized (see Table I-2). The carbon content of each of the six types of plastics is listed, with the value for “other plastics” assumed equal to the weighted average of the six categories. The fraction oxidized was assumed to be 98 percent.

Table I-2: 2000 Plastics Combusted (Gg), Carbon Content (%), and Carbon Combusted (Gg)

Factor	PET	HDPE	PVC	LDPE/ LLDPE	PP	PS	Other	Total
Quantity Combusted	449	960	303	1,217	727	496	936	5,088
Carbon Content of Resin	63%	86%	38%	86%	86%	92%	66% ^a	-
Carbon in Resin Combusted	275	807	114	1,022	611	449	604	3,881
Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq) ^b	1.0	3.0	0.4	3.7	2.2	1.6	2.2	14.2

^a Weighted average of other plastics produced in 1998 production.

^b Assumes a fraction oxidized of 98 percent.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

CO₂ from Combustion of Synthetic Rubber and Carbon Black in Tires

Emissions from tire combustion require two pieces of information: the amount of tires combusted and the carbon content of the tires. The *Scrap Tire Use/Disposal Study 1998/1999 Update* (STMC 1999) reports that 114 million of the 270 million scrap tires generated in 1998 (approximately 42 percent of generation) were used for fuel purposes. Using STMC estimates of average tire composition and weight, the weight of synthetic rubber and carbon black in scrap tires was determined. Synthetic rubber in tires was estimated to be 90 percent carbon by weight, based on the weighted average carbon contents of the major elastomers used in new tire consumption (see Table I-3).¹ Carbon black is 100 percent carbon. Multiplying the proportion of scrap tires combusted by the total carbon content of the synthetic rubber and carbon black portion of scrap tires yielded CO₂ emissions, as shown in Table I-4. Note that the disposal rate of rubber in tires (0.4 Tg/yr) is smaller than the consumption rate for tires based on summing the elastomers listed in Table I-3 (1.3 Tg/yr); this is due to the fact that much of the rubber is lost through tire wear during the product's lifetime and due to the lag time between consumption and disposal of tires. Tire production and fuel use for 1998 through 2001 were extrapolated from trend data for 1994 through 1997.

Table I-3: Elastomers Consumed in 1998 (Gg)

Elastomer	Consumed	Carbon Content	Carbon Equivalent
Styrene butadiene rubber solid	908	91%	828
For Tires	743	91%	677
For Other Products*	165	91%	151
Polybutadiene	561	89%	499
For Tires	404	89%	359
For Other Products	157	89%	140
Ethylene Propylene	320	86%	274
For Tires	10	86%	8
For Other Products	310	86%	266
Polychloroprene	69	59%	40
For Tires	0	59%	0
For Other Products	69	59%	40
Nitrile butadiene rubber solid	87	77%	67
For Tires	1	77%	1
For Other Products	86	77%	67
Polyisoprene	78	88%	69
For Tires	65	88%	57
For Other Products	13	88%	12
Others	369	88%	324
For Tires	63	88%	56
For Other Products	306	88%	268
Total	2,392	-	2,101

*Used to calculate carbon content of non-tire rubber products in municipal solid waste.

- Not applicable

Table I-4: Scrap Tire Constituents and CO₂ Emissions from Scrap Tire Combustion in 1998

Material	Weight of Material (Tg)	Carbon Content	Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)*
Synthetic Rubber	0.7	90%	2.1
Carbon Black	0.9	100%	3.3
Total	1.6	-	5.4

* Assumes a fraction oxidized of 98 percent.

- Not applicable

¹ The carbon content of tires (1,158,000 Tg) divided by for the mass of tires (1,285,000 Tg) equals 90 percent.

CO₂ from Combustion of Synthetic Rubber in Municipal Solid Waste

Similar to the methodology for scrap tires, CO₂ emissions from synthetic rubber in MSW were estimated by multiplying the amount of rubber combusted by an average rubber carbon content. The amount of rubber in the MSW stream was estimated from data provided in the *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States* reports (EPA 2000c, 2002). The reports divide rubber found in MSW into three product categories: other durables (not including tires), non-durables (which includes clothing and footwear and other non-durables), and containers and packaging. Since there was negligible recovery for these product types, all the waste generated can be considered discarded. Similar to the plastics method, discards were apportioned based on the proportions of landfilling and combustion for the entire U.S. waste stream (76 percent and 24 percent, respectively). The report aggregates rubber and leather in the MSW stream; an assumed synthetic rubber content was assigned to each product type, as shown in Table I-5.² A carbon content of 85 percent was assigned to synthetic rubber for all product types, according to the weighted average carbon content of rubber consumed for non-tire uses (see Table I-4). For 1999 and 2001, waste generation values were not available, so 1999 values were interpolated from 1998 and 2000 data, and 2001 values were extrapolated from 2000 data based on observed growth rates for 1998 to 2000.

Table I-5: Rubber and Leather in Municipal Solid Waste in 2000

Product Type	Generation (Gg)	Synthetic Rubber (%)	Carbon Content (%)	Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)*
Durables (not Tires)	2,304	100%	85%	1.7
Non-Durables	306	-	85%	0.2
Clothing and Footwear	122	25%	85%	0.1
Other Non-Durables	184	75%	85%	0.1
Containers and Packaging	27	100%	85%	+
Total	2,638	-	-	2.0

* Assumes a fraction oxidized of 98 percent.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

- Not applicable

CO₂ from Combustion of Synthetic Fibers

Carbon dioxide emissions from synthetic fibers were estimated as the product of the amount of synthetic fiber discarded annually and the average carbon content of synthetic fiber. Fiber in the MSW stream was estimated from data provided in the *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States* (EPA 2000c, 2002) reports for textiles. The amount of synthetic fiber in MSW was estimated by subtracting (a) the amount recovered from (b) the waste generated (see Table I-6). As with the other materials in the MSW stream, discards were apportioned based on the proportions of landfilling and combustion for the entire U.S. waste stream (76 percent and 24 percent, respectively). It was assumed that approximately 55 percent of the fiber was synthetic in origin, based on information received from the Fiber Economics Bureau (DeZan 2000). An average carbon content of 70 percent was assigned to synthetic fiber using the production-weighted average of the carbon contents of the four major fiber types (polyester, nylon, olefin, and acrylic) produced in 1998 (see Table I-7). The equation relating CO₂ emissions to the amount of textiles combusted is shown below. Since 1999 and 2001 values were not provided in the *Characterization* reports, generation and recovery rates for 1999 were interpolated between reported 1998 and 2000 values, while 2001 rates were forecasted by using the observed growth rates (between 1998 and 2000) to extrapolate from the 2000 values.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CO}_2 \text{ Emissions from the Combustion of Synthetic Fibers} &= \text{Annual Textile Combustion (Gg)} \times \\ &(\text{Percent of Total Fiber that is Synthetic}) \times (\text{Average Carbon Content of Synthetic Fiber}) \times \\ &(44\text{g CO}_2/12 \text{ g C}) \end{aligned}$$

Table I-6: Textiles in MSW (Gg)

² As a biogenic material, the combustion of leather is assumed to have no net carbon dioxide emissions.

Year	Generation	Recovery	Discards	Combustion
1990	2,884	328	2,557	614
1991	3,064	341	2,723	654
1992	3,255	354	2,901	696
1993	3,458	368	3,090	742
1994	3,674	382	3,291	790
1995	3,674	447	3,227	774
1996	3,832	472	3,361	807
1997	4,090	526	3,564	855
1998	4,269	551	3,718	892
1999*	4,468	590	3,877	931
2000	4,666	630	4,036	969
2001**	4,883	675	4,208	1,010

*Interpolated between 1998 and 2000 data (EPA 2000c).

** Extrapolated from 2000 data using observed growth rate between 1998 and 2000.

Table I-7: Synthetic Fiber Production in 1998

Fiber	Production (Tg)	Carbon Content
Polyester	1.8	63%
Nylon	1.3	64%
Olefin	1.3	86%
Acrylic	0.2	68%
Total	4.6	70%

- Not applicable

N₂O from Municipal Solid Waste Combustion

Estimates of N₂O emissions from MSW combustion in the United States are based on the methodology outlined in the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors (EPA 1997). According to this methodology, emissions of N₂O from MSW combustion are the product of the mass of MSW combusted, an emission factor of N₂O emitted per unit mass of waste combusted, and an N₂O emissions control removal efficiency. For MSW combustion in the United States, an emission factor of 30 g N₂O/metric ton MSW and an estimated emissions control removal efficiency of zero percent were used. No information was available on the mass of waste combusted in 2001. It was assumed for the purposes of this calculation that the mass of waste combusted in 2001 was the same as estimated for 2000.

ANNEX J

Methodology for Estimating Emissions from International Bunker Fuels used by the U.S. Military

Bunker fuel emissions estimates for the Department of Defense (DoD) were developed using data primarily generated by the Defense Energy Support Center for aviation and naval fuels (DESC 2002). The DESC of the Defense Logistics Agency (DLA) prepared a special report based on data in the Defense Fuels Automated Management System (DFAMS). DFAMS contains data for 1995 through 2001, but the data set was not complete for years prior to 1995. Fuel quantities for 1990 to 1994 were estimated based on a back-calculation of the 1995 DFAMS values using DLA aviation and marine fuel procurement data. The back-calculation was refined in 1999 to better account for the jet fuel conversion from JP4 to JP8 that occurred within the DoD between 1992 and 1995.

Step 1: Omit Extra-Territorial Fuel Deliveries

Beginning with the complete DFAMS data set for each year, the first step in the development of DoD related emissions from international bunker fuels was to identify data that would be representative of international bunker fuel consumption as that term is defined by decisions of the UNFCCC (i.e., fuel sold to a vessel, aircraft, or installation within the United States or its territories and used in international maritime or aviation transport). Therefore, fuel data were categorized by the location of fuel delivery in order to identify and omit all extra-territorial fuel transactions/deliveries (i.e., sales abroad).

Step 2: Allocate JP8 between Aviation and Land-based Vehicles

As a result of DoD¹ and NATO² policies on implementing the Single Fuel For the Battlefield concept, DoD activities have been increasingly replacing diesel fuel with JP8 (a type of jet fuel) in compression ignition and turbine engines in land-based equipment. Based on this concept and examination of all data describing jet fuel used in land-based vehicles, it was determined that a portion of JP8 consumption should be attributed to ground vehicle use. Based on available Service data and expert judgment, it was determined that a small fraction of the total JP8 should be reallocated from the aviation subtotal to a new land-based jet fuel category for 1997 and subsequent years. As a result of this reallocation, the JP8 use reported for aviation will be reduced and the total fuel use for land-based equipment will increase. DoD's total fuel use will not change.

Table J-1 displays DoD's fuel use within the United States. The figure represents data after the completion of Steps 1 and 2, summarized by fuel type. Table J-1 also reflects the adjustments for JP8 used in land-based equipment, as described above.

Step 3: Omit Land-Based Fuels

Navy and Air Force land-based fuels (i.e., fuel not used by ships or aircraft) were also omitted for the purpose of calculating international bunker fuels. The remaining fuels, listed below, are potential DoD international bunker fuels.

- Marine: naval distillate fuel (F76), marine gas oil (MGO), and intermediate fuel oil (IFO).
- Aviation: jet fuels (JP8, JP5, JP4, JAA, JA1, and JAB).

¹ DoD Directive 4140.43, Fuel Standardization, 1998; DoD Directive 4140.25, DoD Management Policy for Energy Commodities and Related Services, 1999.

² NATO Standard Agreement NATO STANAG 4362, Fuels for Future Ground Equipments Using Compression Ignition or Turbine Engines, 1987.

Step 4: Omit Fuel Transactions Received by Military Services that are not Considered to be International Bunker Fuels

Next, the records were sorted by Military Service. The following assumptions were used regarding bunker fuel use by Service, leaving only the Navy and Air Force as users of military international bunker fuels.

- Only fuel delivered to a ship, aircraft, or installation in the United States can be a potential international bunker fuel. Fuel consumed in international aviation or marine transport should be included in the bunker fuel estimate of the country where the ship or aircraft was fueled. Fuel consumed entirely within a country's borders is not bunker fuel.
- Based on discussions with the Army staff, only an extremely small percentage of Army aviation emissions, and none of its watercraft emissions, qualified as bunker fuel emissions. The magnitude of these emissions was judged to be insignificant when compared to Air Force and Navy emissions. Based on this, Army bunker fuel emissions were assumed to be zero.
- Marine Corps aircraft operating while embarked consume fuel reported as delivered to the Navy. Bunker fuel emissions from embarked Marine Corps aircraft were reported in the Navy bunker fuel estimates. Bunker fuel emissions from other Marine Corps operations and training were assumed to be zero.
- Bunker fuel emissions from other DoD and non-DoD activities (i.e., other federal agencies) that purchase fuel from DESC were assumed to be zero.

Step 5: Determine Bunker Fuel Percentages

Next it was necessary to determine what percent of the marine and aviation fuels were used as international bunker fuels. Military aviation bunkers include international operations (i.e., sorties that originate in the United States and end in a foreign country), operations conducted from naval vessels at sea, and operations conducted from U.S. installations principally over international water in direct support of military operations at sea (e.g., anti-submarine warfare flights). For the Air Force, a bunker fuel weighted average was calculated based on flying hours by major command. International flights were weighted by an adjustment factor to reflect the fact that they typically last longer than domestic flights. In addition, a fuel use correction factor was used to account for the fact that transport aircraft burn more fuel per hour of flight than most tactical aircraft. The Air Force bunker fuel percentage was determined to be 13.2 percent. This percentage was multiplied by total annual Air Force aviation fuel delivered for U.S. activities, producing an estimate for international bunker fuel consumed by the Air Force. The Naval Aviation bunker fuel percentage of total fuel was calculated using flying hour data from *Chief of Naval Operations N88F, Flying Hour Projection System* (N42 1991, 1996, 1999), and estimates of bunker fuel percent of flights provided by the fleet. The Naval Aviation bunker fuel percentage, determined to be 40.4 percent, was multiplied by total annual Navy aviation fuel delivered for U.S. activities, yielding total Navy aviation bunker fuel consumed.

For marine bunkers, fuels consumed while ships are underway are assumed to be bunker fuels. In 2000, the Navy reported that 79 percent of vessel operations were underway, while the remaining 21 percent of operations occurred in port (i.e., pierside). Therefore, the Navy maritime bunker fuel percentage was determined to be 79 percent. The percentage of time underway may vary from year-to-year. For example, for years prior to 2000, the bunker fuel percentage was 87 percent. Table J-2 displays DoD's aviation bunker fuel use and Table J-3 displays DoD's maritime bunker fuel use.

Step 6: Calculate Emissions from Military International Bunker Fuels

Bunker fuel totals were multiplied by appropriate emission factors to determine greenhouse gas emissions (see Table J-4 and Table J-5).

The rows labeled 'U.S. Military' and 'U.S. Military Naval Fuels' within Table 2-39 and Table 2-40 in the Energy Chapter were based on the international bunker fuel totals provided in Table J-2 and Table J-3, below. Total CO₂ emissions from military bunker fuels are presented in Table J-6. Carbon dioxide emissions from aviation bunkers and distillate marine bunkers presented in Table 2-38 are the total of military plus civil aviation and civil marine bunker fuels, respectively. The military component of each total is based on fuels tallied in Table J-2 and Table J-3.

At the completion of the 2000 DoD international bunker fuel estimate, it was apparent that the Navy maritime data provided by DESC were abnormal compared to those data for each year from 1995 to 1999. The Navy fuels and logistics office identified a separate data set, which was used as the source for the 2000 inventory, but Navy continued to investigate the 2000 DESC maritime data, which Navy fuels experts considered an anomaly. DESC determined that a few records in the 2000 maritime data set contained errors that were traced back to the DFAMS database system. The DFAMS program was not originally designed to account for open market bunkers transactions, but was later modified to include these purchases, which resulted in some system complications. For example, there are several places in the program where the fuel quantity must be adjusted to allow for an assumed decimal (i.e., divided by 100). Because the adjustment does not occur automatically in the open market bunkers purchases section of the program, queried quantities would reflect 100 times their actual value. DESC reported that this assumed decimal error would have impacted some of the 2000 data for MGO and F76; however, this error should not be present in previous years' data. DESC ran a new query that produced correction amounts for the 2000 MGO and F-76 fuel data set. This query produced results consistent with data from 1995 to 1999, and the 2001 DoD Inventory has been revised accordingly to reflect the 2000 DESC data.

ANNEX K

Methodology for Estimating HFC and PFC Emissions from Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

The Vintaging Model was developed as a tool for estimating the annual chemical emissions from industrial sectors that have historically used ozone depleting substances (ODSs) in their products. Under the terms of the Montreal Protocol and the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990, the domestic production of ODSs—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—has been drastically reduced, forcing these industrial sectors to transition to more ozone friendly chemicals. As these industries have moved toward ODSs substitutes such as hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs), the Vintaging Model has evolved into a tool for estimating the rise in consumption and emissions of these alternatives, and the decline of ODS consumption and emissions.

The Vintaging Model estimates emissions from six industrial sectors: refrigeration and air-conditioning, foams, aerosols, solvents, fire extinguishing, and sterilization. Within these sectors, there are over 40 independently modeled end-uses. The model requires information on the market growth for each of the end-uses, as well as a history of the market transition from ODSs to substitutes. As ODSs are phased out, a percentage of the market share originally filled by the ODSs is allocated to each of its substitutes.

The model, named for its method of tracking the emissions of annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter into service, is a “bottom-up” model. It models the consumption of chemicals based on estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold, serviced, and retired each year, and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain the equipment. The Vintaging Model makes use of this market information to build an inventory of the in-use stocks of the equipment in each of the end-uses. Emissions are estimated by applying annual leak rates, service emission rates, and disposal emission rates to each population of equipment. By aggregating the emission and consumption output from the different end-uses, the model produces estimates of total annual use and emissions of each chemical.

The Vintaging Model synthesizes data from a variety of sources, including data from the ODS Tracking System maintained by the EPA Global Programs Division and information from submissions to EPA under the Significant New Alternatives Policy (SNAP) program. Published sources include documents prepared by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) Technical Options Committees, reports from the Alternative Fluorocarbons Environmental Acceptability Study (AFEAS), and proceedings from the International Conferences on Ozone Protection Technologies and Earth Technologies Forum. EPA also coordinates extensively with numerous trade associations and individual companies. For example, the Alliance for Responsible Atmospheric Policy, the Air-Conditioning and Refrigeration Institute, the Association of Home Appliance Manufacturers, the American Automobile Manufacturers Association, and many of their member companies, have provided valuable information over the years. In some instances the unpublished information that the EPA uses in the model is classified as Confidential Business Information (CBI). The annual emissions inventories of chemicals are aggregated in such a way that CBI cannot be inferred. Full public disclosure of the inputs to the Vintaging Model would jeopardize the security of the CBI that has been entrusted to the EPA.

The following sections discuss the forms of the emission estimating equations used in the Vintaging Model for each broad end-use category. These equations are applied separately for each chemical used within each of approximately 40 different end-uses. In the majority of these end-uses, more than one ODS substitute chemical is used.

In general, the modeled emissions are a function of the amount of chemical consumed in each end-use market. Estimates of the consumption of ODS substitutes can be inferred by extrapolating forward in time from the amount of regulated ODSs used in the early 1990s. Using data gleaned from a variety of sources, assessments are made regarding which alternatives will likely be used, and what fraction of the ODS market in each end-use will be captured by a given alternative. By combining this with estimates of the total end-use market growth, a consumption value can be estimated for each chemical used within each end-use.

Alternatively, “top-down” information on total U.S. consumption of a given chemical is sometimes available. These data can be used by estimating the fraction of this total that is consumed within each end-use. These allocation schemes are guided by EPA’s synthesis of the data available through the aforementioned sources.

Methodology

The methodology used by the Vintaging Model to calculate emissions varies by end-use sector. The methodologies and specific equations used by end-use sector are presented below.

Refrigeration and Air-Conditioning

For refrigeration and air conditioning products, emission calculations are split into two categories: emissions during equipment lifetime, which arise from annual leakage and service losses, and disposal emissions, which occur at the time of discard. Two separate steps are required to calculate the lifetime emissions from leakage and service, and the emissions resulting from disposal of the equipment. These lifetime emissions and disposal emissions are summed to calculate the total emissions from refrigeration and air-conditioning. As new technologies replace older ones, it is generally assumed that there are improvements in their leak, service, and disposal emission rates.

Step 1: Calculate lifetime emissions

Lifetime emissions from any piece of equipment include both the amount of chemical leaked during equipment operation and during service recharges. Emissions from leakage and servicing can be expressed as follows:

$$Es_j = (l_a + l_s) \times \sum Qc_{j-i+1} \quad \text{for } i=1 \rightarrow k$$

Where:

Es = Emissions from Equipment Serviced. Emissions in year j from normal leakage and servicing (including recharging) of equipment.

l_a = Annual Leak Rate. Average annual leak rate during normal equipment operation (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).

l_s = Service Leak Rate. Average leakage during equipment servicing (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).

Qc = Quantity of Chemical in New Equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used to charge new equipment in a given year, j , by weight.

K = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Step 2: Calculate disposal emissions

The disposal emission equations assume that a certain percentage of the chemical charge will be emitted to the atmosphere when that vintage is discarded. Disposal emissions are thus a function of the quantity of chemical contained in the retiring equipment fleet and the proportion of chemical released at disposal:

$$Ed_j = Qc_{j-k+1} \times [1 - (rm \times rc)]$$

Where:

Ed = Emissions from Equipment Disposed. Emissions in year j from the disposal of equipment.

Qc = Quantity of Chemical in New Equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used to charge new equipment in a given year, j , by weight.

rm = Chemical Remaining. Amount of chemical remaining in equipment at the time of disposal (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge)

- rc = Chemical Recovery Rate. Amount of chemical that is recovered just prior to disposal (expressed as a percentage of chemical remaining at disposal (rm))
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Step 3: Calculate total emissions

Finally, lifetime and disposal emissions are summed to provide an estimate of total emissions.

$$E_j = Es_j + Ed_j$$

Where:

- E = Total Emissions. Emissions from refrigeration and air conditioning equipment in year j .
- Es = Emissions from Equipment Serviced. Emissions in year j from normal leakage and servicing (recharging) of equipment.
- Ed = Emissions from Equipment Disposed. Emissions in year j from the disposal of equipment.

Aerosols

All HFCs and PFCs used in aerosols are assumed to be emitted in the year of manufacture. Since there is currently no aerosol recycling, it is assumed that all of the annual production of aerosol propellants is released to the atmosphere. The following equation describes the emissions from the aerosols sector.

$$E_j = Qc_j$$

Where:

- E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j from use in aerosol products, by weight.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total quantity of a specific chemical contained in aerosol products sold in year j , by weight.

Solvents

Generally, most solvents are assumed to remain in the liquid phase and are not emitted as gas. Thus, emissions are considered “incomplete,” and are a fixed percentage of the amount of solvent consumed in a year. The remainder of the consumed solvent is assumed to be reused or disposed without being released to the atmosphere. The following equation calculates emissions from solvent applications.

$$E_j = l \times Qc_j$$

Where:

- E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j from use in solvent applications, by weight.
- l = Percent Leakage. The percentage of the total chemical that is leaked to the atmosphere.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total quantity of a specific chemical sold for use in solvent applications in the year j , by weight.

Fire Extinguishing

Total emissions from fire extinguishing are assumed, in aggregate, to equal a percentage of the total quantity of chemical in operation at a given time. For modeling purposes, it is assumed that fire extinguishing equipment leaks at a constant rate for an average equipment lifetime. This percentage varies for streaming and flooding equipment.

Step 1: Calculate emissions from streaming equipment

$$E_j = l_{se} \times \sum Q_{c_{j-i+1}} \quad \text{for } i=1 \rightarrow k$$

Where:

E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j for streaming fire extinguishing equipment, by weight.

l_{se} = Percent Leakage from Streaming Equipment. The percentage of the total chemical in operation that is leaked to the atmosphere.

Q_c = Quantity of Chemical from streaming equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used in new streaming fire extinguishing equipment in a given year, j , by weight.

k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Step 2: Calculate emissions from flooding equipment

$$E_j = l_{fe} \times \sum Q_{c_{j-i+1}} \quad \text{for } i=1 \rightarrow k$$

Where:

E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j for flooding fire extinguishing equipment, by weight.

l_{fe} = Percent Leakage from Flooding Equipment. The percentage of the total chemical in operation that is leaked to the atmosphere.

Q_c = Quantity of Chemical from flooding equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used in new flooding fire extinguishing equipment in a given year, j , by weight.

k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Foam Blowing

Foams are given emission profiles depending on the foam type (open cell or closed cell). Open cell foams are assumed to be 100 percent emissive in the year of manufacture. Closed cell foams are assumed to emit a portion of their total HFC or PFC content upon manufacture, a portion at a constant rate over the lifetime of the foam, and a portion at disposal.

Step 1: Calculate emissions from open-cell foam

Emissions from open-cell foams are calculated using the following equation.

$$E_j = Q_{c_j}$$

Where:

E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j used for open-cell foam blowing, by weight.

Q_c = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used for open-cell foam blowing in year j , by weight.

Step 2: Calculate emissions from closed-cell foam

Emissions from closed-cell foams are calculated using the following equation.

$$E_j = \sum (ef_i \times Q_{c_{j-i+1}}) \quad \text{for } i=1 \rightarrow k$$

Where:

E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j for closed-cell foam blowing, by weight.

ef = Emission Factor. Percent of foam's original charge emitted in each year ($1 \rightarrow k$). This emission factor is generally variable, including a rate for manufacturing emissions (occurs in the first year of foam life), annual emissions (every year throughout the foam lifetime), and disposal emissions (occurs during the final year of foam life).

Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used in closed-cell foams in year j .

k = Lifetime. Average lifetime of foam product.

Sterilization

For sterilization applications, all chemicals that are used in the equipment in any given year are assumed to be emitted in that year, as shown in the following equation.

$$E_j = Qc_j$$

Where:

E = Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j from use in sterilization equipment, by weight.

Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total quantity of a specific chemical used in sterilization equipment in year j , by weight.

Model Output

By repeating these calculations for each year, the Vintaging Model creates annual profiles of use and emissions for ODS and ODS substitutes. The results can be shown for each year in two ways: 1) on a chemical-by-chemical basis, summed across the end-uses, or 2) on an end-use basis. Values for use and emissions are calculated both in metric tons and in teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.). The conversion of metric tons of chemical to Tg CO₂ Eq. is accomplished through a linear scaling of tonnage by the global warming potential (GWP) of each chemical.

Throughout its development, the Vintaging Model has undergone annual modifications. As new or more accurate information becomes available, the model is adjusted in such a way that both past and future emission estimates are often altered.

ANNEX L

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation

Methane emissions from enteric fermentation were estimated for five livestock categories: cattle, horses, sheep, swine, and goats. Emissions from cattle represent the majority of U.S. emissions; consequently, the more detailed IPCC Tier 2 methodology was used to estimate emissions from cattle and the IPCC Tier 1 methodology was used to estimate emissions from the other types of livestock.

Estimate Methane Emissions from Cattle

This section describes the process used to estimate methane emissions from cattle enteric fermentation. A model based on recommendations provided in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) and IPCC (2000) was developed that uses information on population, energy requirements, digestible energy, and methane conversion rates to estimate methane emissions. The emission methodology consists of the following three steps: (1) characterize the cattle population to account for animal population categories with different emissions profiles; (2) characterize cattle diets to generate information needed to estimate emissions factors; and (3) estimate emissions using these data and the IPCC Tier 2 equations.

Step 1: Characterize U.S. Cattle Population

Each stage in the cattle lifecycle was modeled to simulate the cattle population from birth to slaughter. This level of detail accounts for the variability in methane emissions associated with each life stage. Given that the time in which cattle can be in a stage can be less than one year (e.g., beef calves are weaned at 7 months), the stages are modeled on a per month basis. The type of cattle use also impacts methane emissions (e.g., beef versus dairy). Consequently, cattle life stages were modeled for several categories of dairy and beef cattle. These categories are listed in Table L-1.

Table L-1: Cattle Population Categories Used for Estimating Methane Emissions

Dairy Cattle	Beef Cattle
Calves	Calves
Heifer Replacements	Heifer Replacements
Cows	Heifer and Steer Stockers
	Animals in Feedlots
	Cows
	Bulls

The key variables tracked for each of these cattle population categories (except bulls¹) are as follows:

- *Calving rates:* The number of animals born on a monthly basis was used to initiate monthly cohorts and to determine population age structure. The number of calves born each month was obtained by multiplying annual births by the percentage of births by month. Annual birth information for each year was taken from USDA (2002a, 2001a, 2000a, 1999a, 1995a). Average percentages of births by month for beef from USDA (USDA/APHIS/VS 1998, 1994, 1993) were used for 1990 through 2001. For dairy animals, birth rates were assumed constant throughout the year. Whether calves were born to dairy or beef cows was estimated using the dairy cow calving rate and the total dairy cow population to determine the percent of births attributable to dairy cows, with the remainder assumed to be attributable to beef cows.
- *Average weights and weight gains:* Average weights were tracked for each monthly age group using starting weight and monthly weight gain estimates. Weight gain (i.e., pounds per month) was estimated based on weight gain needed to reach a set target weight, divided by the number of months remaining before target weight was achieved. Birth weight was assumed to be 88 pounds for both beef and dairy

¹ Only end-of-year census population statistics and a national emission factors are used to estimate methane emissions from the bull population.

animals. Weaning weights were estimated to range from 480 to 575 pounds. Other reported target weights were available for 12, 15, 24, and 36 month-old animals. Live slaughter weights were derived from dressed slaughter weight data for each year (USDA 2002c, 2001c, 2000c, 1999a, 1995a). Live slaughter weight was estimated as dressed weight divided by 0.63.

- *Feedlot placements:* Feedlot placement statistics were available that specify placement of animals from the stocker population into feedlots on a monthly basis by weight class. The model used these data to shift a sufficient number of animals from the stocker cohorts into the feedlot populations to match the reported placement data. After animals are placed in feedlots they progress through two steps. First, animals spend time on a step-up diet to become acclimated to the new feed type. Animals are then switched to a finishing diet for a period of time before they are slaughtered. The length of time an animal spends in a feedlot depends on the start weight (i.e., placement weight), the rate of weight gain during the start-up and finishing phase of diet, and the end weight (as determined by weights at slaughter). Weight gain during start-up diets is estimated to be 2.8 to 3 pounds per day. Weight gain during finishing diets is estimated to be 3 to 3.3 pounds per day (Johnson 1999). All animals are estimated to spend 25 days in the step-up diet phase (Johnson 1999). Length of time finishing was calculated based on start weight, weight gain per day, and target slaughter weight.
- *Pregnancy and lactation:* Energy requirements and hence, composition of diets, level of intake, and emissions for particular animals, are greatly influenced by whether the animal is pregnant or lactating. Information is therefore needed on the percentage of all mature animals that are pregnant each month, as well as milk production, to estimate methane emissions. A weighted average percent of pregnant cows each month was estimated using information on births by month and average pregnancy term. For beef cattle, a weighted average total milk production per animal per month was estimated using information on typical lactation cycles and amounts (NRC 1999), and data on births by month. This process results in a range of weighted monthly lactation estimates expressed as lbs/animal/month. The monthly estimates from January to December are 3.33, 5.06, 8.70, 12.01, 13.58, 13.32, 11.67, 9.34, 6.88, 4.45, 3.04, and 2.77 lbs milk/animal/month. Monthly estimates for dairy cattle were taken from USDA monthly milk production statistics.
- *Death rates:* This factor is applied to all heifer and steer cohorts to account for death loss within the model on a monthly basis. The death rates are estimated by determining the death rate that results in model estimates of the end-of-year population for cows that match the published end-of-year population census statistics.
- *Number of animals per category each month:* The population of animals per category is calculated based on number of births (or graduates) into the monthly age group minus those animals that die or are slaughtered and those that graduate to the next category (including feedlot placements). These monthly age groups are tracked in the enteric fermentation model to estimate emissions by animal type on a regional basis.
- *Animal characteristic data:* Dairy lactation estimates for 1990 through 2001 are shown in Table L-2. Table L-3 provides the target weights used to track average weights of cattle by animal type. Table L-4 provides a summary of the reported feedlot placement statistics for 2001. Data on feedlot placements were available for 1996 through 2001. Data for 1990 to 1995 were based on the average of monthly placements from the 1996 to 1998 reported figures.

Cattle population data were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) reports. A summary of the annual average populations upon which all livestock-related emissions are based is provided in Table M-1 of Annex M, Methodology for Estimating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management. The USDA publishes monthly, annual, and multi-year livestock population and production estimates. Multi-year reports include revisions to earlier published data. Cattle and calf populations, feedlot placement statistics (e.g., number of animals placed in feedlots by weight class), slaughter numbers, and lactation data were obtained from the USDA (2002a, 2002c, 2001a, 2002c, 2000a, 2000c, 1999a, 1995a). Beef calf birth percentages were obtained from the National Animal Health Monitoring System (NAHMS) (USDA/APHIS/VS 1998, 1994, 1993).

Step 2: Characterize U.S. Cattle Population Diets

To support development of digestible energy (DE, the percent of gross energy intake digestible to the animal) and methane conversion rate (Y_m , the fraction of gross energy converted to methane) values for each of the cattle population categories, data were collected on diets considered representative of different regions. For both grazing animals and animals being fed mixed rations, representative regional diets were estimated using information collected from state livestock specialists and from USDA (1996a). The data for each of the diets (e.g., proportions of different feed constituents, such as hay or grains) were used to determine chemical composition for use in estimating digestible energy and Y_m for each animal type. Additional detail on the regional diet characterization is provided in EPA (2000).

Digestible energy and Y_m vary by diet and animal type. The IPCC recommends Y_m values of 3.5 to 4.5 percent for feedlot cattle and 5.5 to 6.5 percent for all other cattle. Given the availability of detailed diet information for different regions and animal types in the United States, digestible energy and Y_m values unique to the United States² were developed. Table L-7 shows the regional digestible energy, the Y_m , and percent of total U.S. cattle population in each region based on 2001 data. Digestible energy and Y_m values were estimated for each cattle population category, for each year in the time series based on physiological modeling, published values, and/or expert opinion.

Digestible energy and Y_m values for dairy cows were estimated using a model (Donovan and Baldwin 1999) that represents physiological processes in the ruminant animals. The three major categories of input required by the model are animal description (e.g., cattle type, mature weight), animal performance (e.g., initial and final weight, age at start of period), and feed characteristics (e.g., chemical composition, habitat, grain or forage). Data used to simulate ruminant digestion is provided for a particular animal that is then used to represent a group of animals with similar characteristics. The model accounts for differing diets (i.e., grain-based, forage-based, range-based), so that Y_m values for the variable feeding characteristics within the U.S. cattle population can be estimated.

To calculate the digestible energy values for grazing beef cattle, the diet descriptions were used to estimate weighted digestible energy values for a combination of forage only and supplemented diets. Where digestible energy values were not available for specific feed types, total digestible nutrients (TDN) as a percent of dry matter (DM) intake was used as a proxy for digestible energy as it is essentially the same as the digestible energy value. For forage diets, two separate regional digestible energy values were used to account for the generally lower forage quality in the western US. For non-western grazing animals, the forage digestible energy was an average of the seasonal "TDN percent DM" for Grass Pasture diets listed in Appendix Table 1 of the NRC (2000). This average digestible energy for the non-western grazing animals was 64.7 percent. This value was used for all regions except the west. For western grazing animals, the forage digestible energy was calculated as the average "TDN percent DM" for meadow and range diets listed in Appendix Table 1 of the NRC (2000). The calculated digestible energy for western grazing animals was 58.5 percent. The supplemental diet digestible energy values were estimated for each specific feed component, as shown in Table L-5, along with the percent of each feed type in each region. Finally, weighted averages were developed for digestible energy values for each region using both the supplemental diet and the forage diet³. For beef cows, the digestible energy value was adjusted downward by two percent to reflect the reduced diet of the mature beef cow. The percent of each diet that is assumed to be supplemental and the digestible energy values for each region are shown in Table L-6. Y_m values for all grazing beef cattle were set at 6.5 percent based on Johnson (2002).

For feedlot animals, digestible energy and Y_m values for 1996 through 2001 were taken from Johnson (1999). Values for 1990 through 1995 were linearly extrapolated from the 1996 value based on Johnson (1999). In response to peer reviewer comments (Johnson 2000), values for dairy replacement heifers are based on EPA (1993).

² In some cases, the Y_m values used for this analysis extend beyond the range provided by the IPCC. However, EPA believes that these values are representative for the U.S. due to the research conducted to characterize the diets of U.S. cattle and to assess the Y_m values associated with different animal performance and feed characteristics in the United States.

³ For example, in California the forage DE of 64.7 was used for 95 percent of the grazing cattle diet and a supplemental diet DE of 65.2 percent was used for five percent of the diet, for a total weighted DE of 64.9 percent.

Step 3: Estimate Methane Emissions from Cattle

Emissions were estimated in three steps: a) determine gross energy (GE) intake using the IPCC (2000) equations, b) determine an emissions factor using the GE values and other factors, and c) sum the daily emissions for each animal type. The necessary data values include:

- Body Weight (kg)
- Weight Gain (kg/day)
- Net Energy for Activity (C_a)⁴
- Standard Reference Weight⁵ (Dairy = 1,324 kg; Beef = 1,195 kg)
- Milk Production (kg/day)
- Milk Fat (percent of fat in milk = 4)
- Pregnancy (percent of population that is pregnant)
- DE (percent of gross energy intake digestible)
- Y_m (the fraction of gross energy converted to methane)

Step 3a: Gross Energy, GE

As shown in the following equation, gross energy (GE) is derived based on the net energy estimates and the feed characteristics. Only variables relevant to each animal category are used (e.g., estimates for feedlot animals do not require the NE_l factor). All net energy equations are provided in IPCC (2000).

$$GE = [((NE_m + NE_{mobilized} + NE_a + NE_l + NE_p) / \{NE_{ma}/DE\}) + (NE_g / \{NE_{ga}/DE\})] / (DE / 100)$$

Where:

GE = gross energy (MJ/day)

NE_m = net energy required by the animal for maintenance (MJ/day)

$NE_{mobilized}$ = net energy due to weight loss (mobilized) (MJ/day)

NE_a = net energy for animal activity (MJ/day)

NE_l = net energy for lactation (MJ/day)

NE_p = net energy required for pregnancy (MJ/day)

$\{NE_{ma}/DE\}$ = ratio of net energy available in a diet for maintenance to digestible energy consumed

NE_g = net energy needed for growth (MJ/day)

$\{NE_{ga}/DE\}$ = ratio of net energy available for growth in a diet to digestible energy consumed

DE = digestible energy expressed as a percentage of gross energy (percent)

Step 3b: Emission Factor

The emissions factor (DayEmit) was determined using the gross energy value and the methane conversion factor (Y_m) for each category. This is shown in the following equation:

$$\text{DayEmit} = [GE \times Y_m] / [55.65 \text{ MJ/kg CH}_4]$$

Where:

DayEmit = emission factor (kg CH₄/head/day)

⁴ Zero for feedlot conditions, 0.17 for high quality confined pasture conditions, 0.36 for extensive open range or hilly terrain grazing conditions. C_a factor for dairy cows is weighted to account for the fraction of the population in the region that grazes during the year.

⁵ Standard Reference Weight is used in the model to account for breed potential.

GE = gross energy intake (MJ/head/day)

Y_m = methane conversion rate which is the fraction of gross energy in feed converted to methane (percent)

The daily emission factors were estimated for each animal type, weight and region.

Step 3c: Estimate Total Emissions

Emissions were summed for each month and for each population category using the daily emission factor for a representative animal and the number of animals in the category. The following equation was used:

$$\text{Emissions} = \text{DayEmit} \times \text{Days/Month} \times \text{SubPop}$$

Where:

DayEmit = the emission factor for the subcategory (kg CH₄/head/day)

Days/Month = the number of days in the month

SubPop = the number of animals in the subcategory during the month

This process was repeated for each month, and the totals for each subcategory were summed to achieve an emissions estimate for the entire year. The estimates for each of the 10 subcategories of cattle are listed in Table L-8. The emissions for each subcategory were then summed to estimate total emissions from beef cattle and dairy cattle for the entire year.

Emission Estimates from Other Livestock

All livestock population data, except for horses, were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) reports. Table M-1 of Annex M shows the population data for all livestock species that were used for estimating all livestock-related emissions. For each animal category, the USDA publishes monthly, annual, and multi-year livestock population and production estimates. Multi-year reports include revisions to earlier published data. Recent reports were obtained from the USDA Economics and Statistics System, while historical data were downloaded from the USDA-NASS. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) publishes horse population data. These data were accessed from the FAOSTAT database at <http://apps.fao.org/>. Methane emissions from sheep, goats, swine, and horses were estimated by multiplying published national population estimates by the national emission factor for each year. Table L-9 shows the emission factors used for these other livestock.

A complete time series of enteric fermentation emissions from all livestock types is shown in Table L-10 (Tg CO₂ Eq.) and Table L-11 (Gg).

Table L-2: Dairy Lactation by Region (lbs. year/cow)*

Year	California	West	Northern Great				Midwest	Southeast
			Plains	Southcentral	Northeast			
1990	18,443	17,293	13,431	13,399	14,557	14,214	12,852	
1991	18,522	17,615	13,525	13,216	14,985	14,446	13,053	
1992	18,709	18,083	13,998	13,656	15,688	14,999	13,451	
1993	18,839	18,253	14,090	14,027	15,602	15,086	13,739	
1994	20,190	18,802	14,686	14,395	15,732	15,276	14,111	
1995	19,559	18,708	14,807	14,294	16,254	15,680	14,318	
1996	19,148	19,076	15,040	14,402	16,271	15,651	14,232	
1997	19,815	19,537	15,396	14,330	16,519	16,116	14,517	
1998	19,461	19,814	15,922	14,722	16,865	16,676	14,404	
1999	20,763	20,495	16,378	14,986	17,271	16,966	14,860	
2000	21,134	20,782	17,297	15,314	17,484	17,426	15,196	
2001	20,898	20,656	17,347	14,813	17,602	17,218	15,303	

Source: USDA (2002d, 2001d, 2000d, 1999a, 1995a).

* Beef lactation data were developed using the methodology described in the text.

Table L-6: Percent of each Diet that is Supplemental, and the Resulting DE Values for each Region

Region	Percent Supplement	Percent Forage	Calculated Weighted Average DE
West	10	90	59.2%
Northeast	15	85	64.7%
Southcentral	10	90	64.4%
Midwest	15	85	64.7%
Northern Great Plains	15	85	66.1%
Southeast	5	95	64.4%
California	5	95	64.9%

Source of percent of total diet that is supplemental diet: Donovan (1999)

Table L-7: Regional Digestible Energy (DE), Methane Conversion Rates (Y_m), and population percentages for Cattle in 2001

Animal Type	Data	California	West	Northern Great Plains	Southcentral	Northeast	Midwest	Southeast
Beef Repl. Heif.	DE ^a	65	59	66	64	65	65	64
	Y_m ^b	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%
	Pop. ^c	3%	10%	31%	23%	2%	14%	17%
Dairy Repl. Heif.	DE	66	66	66	64	68	66	66
	Y_m	5.9%	5.9%	5.6%	6.4%	6.3%	5.6%	6.9%
	Pop.	18%	12%	5%	4%	18%	36%	7%
Steer Stockers	DE	65	59	66	64	65	65	64
	Y_m	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%
	Pop.	4%	8%	42%	22%	2%	18%	5%
Heifer Stockers	DE	65	59	66	64	65	65	64
	Y_m	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%
	Pop.	2%	7%	50%	22%	1%	15%	4%
Steer Feedlot	DE	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
	Y_m	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%
	Pop.	3%	8%	48%	24%	1%	16%	1%
Heifer Feedlot	DE	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
	Y_m	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%
	Pop.	3%	8%	48%	24%	1%	16%	1%
Beef Cows	DE	63	57	64	62	63	63	62
	Y_m	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%	6.5%
	Pop.	2%	8%	28%	26%	2%	14%	19%
Dairy Cows	DE	69	66	69	68	69	69	68
	Y_m	4.8%	5.8%	5.8%	5.7%	5.8%	5.8%	5.6%
	Pop.	17%	13%	5%	6%	18%	33%	8%
Steer Step-Up	DE	73	73	73	73	73	73	73
	Y_m	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%
Heifer Step-Up	DE	73	73	73	73	73	73	73
	Y_m	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%	4.8%

^a Digestible Energy in units of percent GE (MJ/Day).

^b Methane Conversion Rate is the fraction of GE in feed converted to methane.

^c Percent of each subcategory population present in each region.

Table L-8: CH₄ Emissions from Cattle (Gg)

ANNEX M

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management

This annex presents a discussion of the methodology used to calculate methane and nitrous oxide emissions from manure management systems. More detailed discussions of selected topics may be found in supplemental memoranda in the supporting docket to this inventory.

The following steps were used to estimate methane and nitrous oxide emissions from the management of livestock manure. Nitrous oxide emissions associated with pasture, range, or paddock systems and daily spread systems are included in the emissions estimates for Agricultural Soil Management (see Annex N).

Step 1: Livestock Population Characterization Data

Annual animal population data for 1990 through 2001 for all livestock types, except horses and goats, were obtained from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994a-b, 1995a-b, 1998a-b, 1999a-c, 2000a-g, 2001a-f, 2002 a-f). The actual population data used in the emissions calculations for cattle and swine were downloaded from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service Population Estimates Data Base (<<http://www.usda.gov/nass/>>). Horse population data were obtained from the FAOSTAT database (FAO 2002). Goat population data for 1992 and 1997 were obtained from the Census of Agriculture (USDA 1999d). Information regarding poultry turnover (i.e., slaughter) rate was obtained from state Natural Resource Conservation Service personnel (Lange 2000).

A summary of the livestock population characterization data used to calculate methane and nitrous oxide emissions is presented in Table M-1.

Dairy Cattle: The total annual dairy cow and heifer state population data for 1990 through 2001 are provided in various USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service reports (1995a, 1999a, 2000a-b, 2001a-b, 2002a-b). The actual total annual dairy cow and heifer state population data used in the emissions calculations were downloaded from the U.S. Department of Agriculture National Agricultural Statistics Service Published Estimates Database (<<http://www.usda.gov/nass/>>) for Cattle and Calves. The specific data used to estimate dairy cattle populations are “Cows That Calved – Milk” and “Heifers 500+ Lbs – Milk Repl.”

Beef Cattle: The total annual beef cattle population data for each state for 1990 through 2001 are provided in various USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service reports (1995a, 1999a, 2000a-b, 2001a-b, 2002a-b). The actual data used in the emissions calculations were downloaded from the U.S. Department of Agriculture National Agricultural Statistics Service Published Estimates Database (<<http://www.usda.gov/nass/>>), Cattle and Calves. The specific data used to estimate beef cattle populations are: “Cows That Calved—Beef,” “Heifers 500+ Lbs—Beef Repl,” “Heifers 500+ Lbs—Other,” and “Steers 500+ Lbs.” Additional information regarding the percent of beef steer and heifers on feedlots was obtained from contacts with the national USDA office (Milton 2000).

For all beef cattle groups (cows, heifers, steer, bulls, and calves), the USDA data provide cattle inventories from January and July of each year. Cattle inventories change over the course of the year, sometimes significantly, as new calves are born and as fattened cattle are slaughtered; therefore, to develop the best estimate for the annual animal population, the average inventory of cattle by state was calculated. USDA provides January inventory data for each state; however, July inventory data is only presented as a total for the United States. In order to estimate average annual populations by state, a “scaling factor” was developed that adjusts the January state-level data to reflect July inventory changes. This factor equals the average of the US January and July data divided by the January data. The scaling factor is derived for each cattle group and is then applied to the January state-level data to arrive at the state-level annual population estimates.

Swine: The total annual swine population data for each state for 1990 through 2001 are provided in various USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service reports (USDA 1994a, 1998a, 2000c, 2001c, 2002c). The USDA data provides quarterly data for each swine subcategory: breeding, market under 60 pounds (less than 27 kg), market 60 to 119 pounds (27 to 54 kg), market 120 to 179 pounds (54 to 81 kg), and market 180 pounds and over (greater than 82 kg). The average of the quarterly data was used in the emissions calculations. For states where only

December inventory is reported, the December data were used directly. The actual data used in the emissions calculations were downloaded from the U.S. Department of Agriculture National Agricultural Statistics Service Published Estimates Database (<<http://www.usda.gov/nass/>>), Hogs and Pigs.

Sheep: The total annual sheep population data for each state for 1990 through 2001 were obtained from USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994b, 1999c, 2000f, 2001f, 2002f). Population data for lamb and sheep on feed are not available after 1993. The number of lamb and sheep on feed for 1994 through 2001 were calculated using the average of the percent of lamb and sheep on feed from 1990 through 1993. In addition, all of the sheep and lamb “on feed” are not necessarily on “feedlots”; they may be on pasture/crop residue supplemented by feed. Data for those animals on feed that are on feedlots versus pasture/crop residue were provided only for lamb in 1993. To calculate the populations of sheep and lamb on feedlots for all years, it was assumed that the percentage of sheep and lamb on feed that are on feedlots versus pasture/crop residue is the same as that for lambs in 1993 (Anderson 2000).

Goats: Annual goat population data by state were available for only 1992 and 1997 (USDA 1999d). The data for 1992 were used for 1990 through 1992 and the data for 1997 were used for 1997 through 2001. Data for 1993 through 1996 were extrapolated using the 1992 and 1997 data.

Poultry: Annual poultry population data by state for the various animal categories (hens 1 year and older, total pullets, other chickens, broilers, and turkeys) were obtained from USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1995b, 1998b, 1999b, 2000d-e, 2000g, 2001d-e, 2002d-e). The annual population data for boilers and turkeys were adjusted for turnover (i.e., slaughter) rate (Lange 2000).

Horses: The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) publishes annual horse population data, which were accessed from the FAOSTAT database at <<http://apps.fao.org/>> (FAO 2002).

Step 2: Waste Characteristics Data

Methane and nitrous oxide emissions calculations are based on the following animal characteristics for each relevant livestock population:

- Volatile solids excretion rate (VS)
- Maximum methane producing capacity (B_o) for U.S. animal waste
- Nitrogen excretion rate (N_{ex})
- Typical animal mass (TAM)

Table M-2 presents a summary of the waste characteristics used in the emissions estimates. Published sources were reviewed for U.S.-specific livestock waste characterization data that would be consistent with the animal population data discussed in Step 1. The USDA’s National Engineering Handbook, Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook (USDA 1996a) is one of the primary sources of waste characteristics. In some cases, data from the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1999) were used to supplement the USDA data. The volatile solids (VS) and nitrogen excretion data for breeding swine are a combination of the types of animals that make up this animal group, namely gestating and farrowing swine and boars. It is assumed that a group of breeding swine is typically broken out as 80 percent gestating sows, 15 percent farrowing swine, and 5 percent boars (Safley 2000).

The method for calculating volatile solids production from beef and dairy cows, heifers, and steer is based on the relationship between animal diet and energy utilization, which is modeled in the enteric fermentation portion of the inventory. Volatile solids content of manure equals the fraction of the diet consumed by cattle that is not digested and thus excreted as fecal material which, when combined with urinary excretions, constitutes manure. The enteric fermentation model requires the estimation of gross energy intake and its fractional digestibility, digestible energy, in the process of estimating enteric methane emissions (see Appendix K for details on the enteric energy model). These two inputs were used to calculate the indigestible energy per animal unit as gross energy minus digestible energy plus an additional 2 percent of gross energy for urinary energy excretion per animal unit. This was then converted to volatile solids production per animal unit using the typical conversion of dietary gross energy to dry organic matter of 20.1 MJ/kg (Garrett and Johnson, 1983). The equation used for calculating volatile solids is as follows:

$$\text{VS production (kg)} = [\text{GE} - \text{DE} + (0.02 * \text{GE})] / 20.1 \text{ (MJ/kg)}$$

Where:

GE= gross energy intake (MJ)

DE= digestible energy (MJ)

This equation was used to calculate volatile solids rates for each region, cattle type, and year, with state-specific volatile solids excretion rates assigned based on which region of the country the state is located in (Peterson et al., 2002).

Table M-3 presents the state-specific volatile solids production rates used for 2001.

Step 3: Waste Management System Usage Data

Estimates were made of the distribution of wastes by management system and animal type using the following sources of information:

- State contacts to estimate the breakout of dairy cows on pasture, range, or paddock, and the percent of wastes managed by daily spread systems (Deal 2000, Johnson 2000, Miller 2000, Stettler 2000, Sweeten 2000, Wright 2000)
- Data collected for EPA's Office of Water, including site visits, to medium and large beef feedlot, dairy, swine, and poultry operations (EPA 2001a)
- Contacts with the national USDA office to estimate the percent of beef steer and heifers on feedlots (Milton 2000)
- Survey data collected by USDA (USDA 1998d, 2000h) and re-aggregated by farm size and geographic location, used for small operations
- Survey data collected by the United Egg Producers (UEP 1999) and USDA (2000i) and previous EPA estimates (EPA 1992) of waste distribution for layers
- Survey data collected by Cornell University on dairy manure management operations in New York (Poe 1999)
- Previous EPA estimates of waste distribution for sheep, goat, and horse operations (EPA 1992)

Beef Feedlots: Based on EPA site visits and state contacts, beef feedlot manure is almost exclusively managed in drylots. Therefore, 100 percent of the manure excreted at beef feedlots is expected to be deposited in drylots and generate emissions. In addition, a portion of the manure that is deposited in the drylot will run off the drylot during rain events and be captured in a waste storage pond. An estimate of the runoff has been made by EPA's Office of Water for various geographic regions of the United States. These runoff numbers were used to estimate emissions from runoff storage ponds located at beef feedlots (EPA 2001a).

Dairy Cows: Based on EPA site visits and state contacts, manure from dairy cows at medium (200 through 700 head) and large (greater than 700 head) operations are managed using either flush systems or scrape/slurry systems. In addition, they may have a solids separator in place prior to their storage component. Estimates of the percent of farms that use each type of system (by geographic region) were developed by EPA's Office of Water, and were used to estimate the percent of wastes managed in lagoons (flush systems), liquid/slurry systems (scrape systems), and solid storage (separated solids) (EPA 2001a). Manure management system data for small (fewer than 200 head) dairies were obtained from USDA (USDA 2000h). These operations are more likely to use liquid/slurry and solid storage management systems than anaerobic lagoon systems. The reported manure management systems were deep pit, liquid/slurry (also includes slurry tank, slurry earth-basin, and aerated lagoon), anaerobic lagoon, and solid storage (also includes manure pack, outside storage, and inside storage).

The percent of wastes by system was estimated using the USDA data broken out by geographic region and farm size. Farm-size distribution data reported in the 1992 and 1997 Census of Agriculture (USDA 1999e) were used to determine the percentage of all dairies using the various manure management systems. Due to lack of

additional data for other years, it was assumed that the data provided for 1992 were the same as that for 1990 and 1991, and data provided for 1997 were the same as that for 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001. Data for 1993 through 1996 were extrapolated using the 1992 and 1997 data.

Data regarding the use of daily spread and pasture, range, or paddock systems for dairy cattle were obtained from personal communications with personnel from several organizations. These organizations include state NRCS offices, state extension services, state universities, USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS), and other experts (Deal 2000, Johnson 2000, Miller 2000, Stettler 2000, Sweeten 2000, and Wright 2000). Contacts at Cornell University provided survey data on dairy manure management practices in New York (Poe 1999). Census of Agriculture population data for 1992 and 1997 (USDA 1999e) were used in conjunction with the state data obtained from personal communications to determine regional percentages of total dairy cattle and dairy wastes that are managed using these systems. These percentages were applied to the total annual dairy cow and heifer state population data for 1990 through 2001, which were obtained from the National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1995a, 1999a, 2000a-b, 2001a-b, 2002a-b).

Of the dairies using systems other than daily spread and pasture, range, or paddock systems, some dairies reported using more than one type of manure management system. Therefore, the total percent of systems reported by USDA for a region and farm size is greater than 100 percent. Typically, this means that some of the manure at a dairy is handled in one system (e.g., a lagoon), and some of the manure is handled in another system (e.g., drylot). However, it is unlikely that the same manure is moved from one system to another. Therefore, to avoid double counting emissions, the reported percentages of systems in use were adjusted to equal a total of 100 percent, using the same distribution of systems. For example, if USDA reported that 65 percent of dairies use deep pits to manage manure and 55 percent of dairies use anaerobic lagoons to manage manure, it was assumed that 54 percent (i.e., 65 percent divided by 120 percent) of the manure is managed with deep pits and 46 percent (i.e., 55 percent divided by 120 percent) of the manure is managed with anaerobic lagoons (ERG 2000).

Dairy Heifers: The percent of dairy heifer operations that are pasture, range, or paddock or that operate as daily spread was estimated using the same approach as dairy cows. Similar to beef cattle, dairy heifers are housed on drylots when not pasture based. Based on data from EPA's Office of Water (EPA 2001a), it was assumed that 100 percent of the manure excreted by dairy heifers is deposited in drylots and generates emissions. Estimates of runoff have been made by EPA's Office of Water for various geographic regions of the US (EPA 2001a).

Swine: Based on data collected during site visits for EPA's Office of Water (ERG 2000), manure from swine at large (greater than 2000 head) and medium (200 through 2000 head) operations are primarily managed using deep pit systems, liquid/slurry systems, or anaerobic lagoons. Manure management system data were obtained from USDA (USDA 1998d). It was assumed those operations with less than 200 head use pasture, range, or paddock systems. The percent of waste by system was estimated using the USDA data broken out by geographic region and farm size. Farm-size distribution data reported in the 1992 and 1997 Census of Agriculture (USDA 1999e) were used to determine the percentage of all swine utilizing the various manure management systems. The reported manure management systems were deep pit, liquid/slurry (also includes above- and below-ground slurry), anaerobic lagoon, and solid storage (also includes solids separated from liquids).

Some swine operations reported using more than one management system; therefore, the total percent of systems reported by USDA for a region and farm size is greater than 100 percent. Typically, this means that some of the manure at a swine operation is handled in one system (e.g., liquid system), and some of the manure is handled in another system (e.g., dry system). However, it is unlikely that the same manure is moved from one system to another. Therefore, to avoid double counting emissions, the reported percentages of systems in use were adjusted to equal a total of 100 percent, using the same distribution of systems, as explained under "Dairy Cows".

Sheep: It was assumed that all sheep wastes not deposited on feedlots were deposited on pasture, range, or paddock lands (Anderson 2000).

Goats/Horses: Estimates of manure management distribution were obtained from EPA's previous estimates (EPA 1992).

Poultry – Layers: Waste management system data for layers for 1990 were obtained from Appendix H of *Global Methane Emissions from Livestock and Poultry Manure* (EPA 1992). The percentage of layer operations using a shallow pit flush house with anaerobic lagoon or high-rise house without bedding was obtained for 1999 from United Egg Producers, voluntary survey, 1999 (UEP 1999). These data were augmented for key poultry states (AL, AR, CA, FL, GA, IA, IN, MN, MO, NC, NE, OH, PA, TX, and WA) with USDA data (USDA 2000i). It was

assumed that the change in system usage between 1990 and 1999 is proportionally distributed among those years of the inventory. It was assumed that system usage in 2000 and 2001 was equal to that estimated for 1999. It was also assumed that 1 percent of poultry wastes are deposited on pasture, range, or paddock lands (EPA 1992).

Poultry - Broilers/Turkeys: The percentage of turkeys and broilers on pasture or in high-rise houses without bedding was obtained from *Global Methane Emissions from Livestock and Poultry Manure* (EPA 1992). It was assumed that 1 percent of poultry wastes are deposited in pastures, range, and paddocks (EPA 1992).

Step 4: Emission Factor Calculations

Methane conversion factors (MCFs) and nitrous oxide emission factors (EFs) used in the emission calculations were determined using the methodologies shown below:

Methane Conversion Factors (MCFs)

Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2000) for anaerobic lagoon systems published default methane conversion factors of 0 to 100 percent, which reflects the wide range in performance that may be achieved with these systems. There exist relatively few data points on which to determine country-specific MCFs for these systems. Therefore, a climate-based approach was identified to estimate MCFs for anaerobic lagoon and other liquid storage systems.

The following approach was used to develop the MCFs for liquid systems, and is based on the van't Hoff-Arrhenius equation used to forecast performance of biological reactions. One practical way of estimating MCFs for liquid manure handling systems is based on the mean ambient temperature and the van't Hoff-Arrhenius equation with a base temperature of 30°C, as shown in the following equation (Safley and Westerman 1990):

$$f = \exp\left[\frac{E(T_2 - T_1)}{RT_1T_2}\right]$$

Where:

$T_1 = 303.16\text{K}$

$T_2 =$ ambient temperature (K) for climate zone (in this case, a weighted value for each state)

$E =$ activation energy constant (15,175 cal/mol)

$R =$ ideal gas constant (1.987 cal/K mol)

The factor “f” represents the proportion of volatile solids that are biologically available for conversion to methane based on the temperature of the system. The temperature is assumed equal to the ambient temperature. For colder climates, a minimum temperature of 5°C was established for uncovered anaerobic lagoons and 7.5°C for other liquid manure handling systems. For those animal populations using liquid systems (i.e., dairy cow, dairy heifer, layers, beef on feedlots, and swine) monthly average state temperatures were based on the counties where the specific animal population resides (i.e., the temperatures were weighted based on the percent of animals located in each county). The average county and state temperature data were obtained from the National Climate Data Center (NOAA 2001), and the county population data were based on 1992 and 1997 Census data (USDA 1999e). County population data for 1990 and 1991 were assumed to be the same as 1992; county population data for 1998 through 2001 were assumed to be the same as 1997; and county population data for 1993 through 1996 were extrapolated based on 1992 and 1997 data.

Annual MCFs for liquid systems are calculated as follows for each animal type, state, and year of the inventory:

- 1) Monthly temperatures are calculated by using county-level temperature and population data. The weighted-average temperature for a state is calculated using the population estimates and average monthly temperature in each county.
- 2) Monthly temperatures are used to calculate a monthly van't Hoff-Arrhenius “f” factor, using the equation presented above. A minimum temperature of 5°C is used for anaerobic lagoons and 7.5°C is used for liquid/slurry and deep pit systems.

- 3) Monthly production of volatile solids that are added to the system is estimated based on the number of animals present and, for lagoon systems, adjusted for a management and design practices factor. This factor accounts for other mechanisms by which volatile solids are removed from the management system prior to conversion to methane, such as solids being removed from the system for application to cropland. This factor, equal to 0.8, has been estimated using currently available methane measurement data from anaerobic lagoon systems in the United States (ERG 2001).
- 4) The amount of volatile solids available for conversion to methane is assumed to be equal to the amount of volatile solids produced during the month (from Step 3). For anaerobic lagoons, the amount of volatile solids available also includes volatile solids that may remain in the system from previous months.
- 5) The amount of volatile solids consumed during the month is equal to the amount available for conversion multiplied by the “f” factor.
- 6) For anaerobic lagoons, the amount of volatile solids carried over from one month to the next is equal to the amount available for conversion minus the amount consumed.
- 7) The estimated amount of methane generated during the month is equal to the monthly volatile solids consumed multiplied by the maximum methane potential of the waste (B_0).
- 8) The annual MCF is then calculated as:

$$MCF_{(annual)} = CH_4 \text{ generated}_{(annual)} / (VS \text{ generated}_{(annual)} \times B_0)$$

Where:

$MCF_{(annual)}$ = Methane conversion factor

$VS \text{ generated}_{(annual)}$ = Volatile solids excretion rate

B_0 = Maximum methane producing potential of the waste

In order to account for the carry-over of volatile solids from the year prior to the inventory year for which estimates are calculated, it is assumed in the MCF calculation for lagoons that a portion of the volatile solids from October, November, and December of the year prior to the inventory year are available in the lagoon system starting January of the inventory year.

Following this procedure, the resulting MCF accounts for temperature variation throughout the year, residual volatile solids in a system (carry-over), and management and design practices that may reduce the volatile solids available for conversion to methane. The MCFs presented in Table M-4 by state and waste management system represent the average MCF for 2001 by state for all animal groups located in that state. However, in the calculation of methane emissions, specific MCFs for each animal type in the state are used.

Nitrous Oxide Emission Factors

Nitrous oxide emission factors for all manure management systems were set equal to the default IPCC factors (IPCC 2000).

Step 5: Weighted Emission Factors

For beef cattle, dairy cattle, swine, and poultry, the emission factors for both methane and nitrous oxide were weighted to incorporate the distribution of wastes by management system for each state. The following equation was used to determine the weighted MCF for a particular animal type in a particular state:

$$MCF_{animal, state} = \sum_{system} (MCF_{system, state} \times \% Manure_{animal, system, state})$$

Where:

$MCF_{animal, state}$ = Weighted MCF for that animal group and state

$MCF_{system, state} = MCF$ for that system and state (see Step 4)

$\% Manure_{animal, system, state} =$ Percent of manure managed in the system for that animal group in that state (expressed as a decimal)

The weighted nitrous oxide emission factor for a particular animal type in a particular state was determined as follows:

$$EF_{animal, state} = \sum_{system} (EF_{system} \times \% Manure_{animal, system, state})$$

Where:

$EF_{animal, state} =$ Weighted emission factor for that animal group and state

$EF_{system} =$ Emission factor for that system (see Step 4)

$\% Manure_{animal, system, state} =$ Percent of manure managed in the system for that animal group in that state (expressed as a decimal)

Data for the calculated weighted factors for 1992 was taken from the 1992 Census of Agriculture, combined with assumptions on manure management system usage based on farm size, and were also used for 1990 and 1991. Data for the calculated weighted factors for 1997 was taken from the 1997 Census of Agriculture, combined with assumptions on manure management system usage based on farm size, and were also used for 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001. Factors for 1993 through 1996 were calculated by interpolating between the two sets of factors. A summary of the weighted MCFs used to calculate beef feedlot, dairy cow and heifer, swine, and poultry emissions for 2001 are presented in Table M-5.

Step 6: Methane and Nitrous Oxide Emission Calculations

For beef feedlot cattle, dairy cows, dairy heifers, swine, and poultry, methane emissions were calculated for each animal group as follows:

$$Methane_{animal\ group} = \sum_{state} (Population \times VS \times B_o \times MCF_{animal, state} \times 0.662)$$

Where:

$Methane_{animal\ group} =$ methane emissions for that animal group (kg CH₄/yr)

Population = annual average state animal population for that animal group (head)

VS = total volatile solids produced annually per animal (kg/yr/head)

$B_o =$ maximum methane producing capacity per kilogram of VS (m³ CH₄/kg VS)

$MCF_{animal, state} =$ weighted MCF for the animal group and state (see Step 5)

0.662 = conversion factor of m³ CH₄ to kilograms CH₄ (kg CH₄/m³ CH₄)

Methane emissions from other animals (i.e., sheep, goats, and horses) were based on the 1990 methane emissions estimated using the detailed method described in *Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States: Estimates for 1990, Report to Congress* (EPA 1993). This approach is based on animal-specific manure characteristics and management system data. This process was not repeated for subsequent years for these other animal types. Instead, national populations of each of the animal types were used to scale the 1990 emissions estimates to the period 1991 through 2001.

Nitrous oxide emissions were calculated for each animal group as follows:

$$\text{Nitrous Oxide}_{\text{animal group}} = \sum_{\text{state}} (\text{Population} \times N_{\text{ex}} \times EF_{\text{animal, state}} \times 44 / 28)$$

Where:

Nitrous Oxide_{animal group} = nitrous oxide emissions for that animal group (kg/yr)

Population = annual average state animal population for that animal group (head)

N_{ex} = total Kjeldahl nitrogen excreted annually per animal (kg/yr/head)

EF_{animal, state} = weighted nitrous oxide emission factor for the animal group and state, kg N₂O-N/kg N excreted (see Step 5)

44/28 = conversion factor of N₂O-N to N₂O

Emission estimates are summarized in Table M-6 and Table M-7.

Table M-2: Waste Characteristics Data

Animal Group	Average TAM (kg) Source	Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen, N _{ex} (kg/day per 1,000 kg mass) Source	Maximum Methane Generation Potential, B ₀ (m ³ CH ₄ /kg VS added) Source	Volatile Solids, VS (kg/day per 1,000 kg mass) Source
Dairy Cow	604 Safley 2000	0.44 USDA 1996a	0.24 Morris 1976	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
Dairy Heifer	476 Safley 2000	0.31 USDA 1996a	0.17 Bryant et. al. 1976	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
Feedlot Steers	420 USDA 1996a	0.30 USDA 1996a	0.33 Hashimoto 1981	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
Feedlot Heifers	420 USDA 1996a	0.30 USDA 1996a	0.33 Hashimoto 1981	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
NOF Bulls	750 Safley 2000	0.31 USDA 1996a	0.17 Hashimoto 1981	6.04 USDA 1996a
NOF Calves	159 USDA 1998c	0.30 USDA 1996a	0.17 Hashimoto 1981	6.41 USDA 1996a
NOF Heifers	420 USDA 1996a	0.31 USDA 1996a	0.17 Hashimoto 1981	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
NOF Steers	318 Safley 2000	0.31 USDA 1996a	0.17 Hashimoto 1981	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
NOF Cows	590 Safley 2000	0.33 USDA 1996a	0.17 Hashimoto 1981	Table M-3 Peterson et al., 2002
Market Swine <60 lbs.	15.88 Safley 2000	0.60 USDA 1996a	0.48 Hashimoto 1984	8.80 USDA 1996a
Market Swine 60-119 lbs.	40.60 Safley 2000	0.42 USDA 1996a	0.48 Hashimoto 1984	5.40 USDA 1996a
Market Swine 120-179 lbs.	67.82 Safley 2000	0.42 USDA 1996a	0.48 Hashimoto 1984	5.40 USDA 1996a
Market Swine >180 lbs.	90.75 Safley 2000	0.42 USDA 1996a	0.48 Hashimoto 1984	5.40 USDA 1996a
Breeding Swine	198 Safley 2000	0.24 USDA 1996a	0.48 Hashimoto 1984	2.60 USDA 1996a
Sheep	27 ASAE 1999	0.42 ASAE 1999	NA NA	NA NA
Goats	64 ASAE 1999	0.45 ASAE 1999	NA NA	NA NA
Horses	450 ASAE 1999	0.30 ASAE 1999	NA NA	NA NA
Hens >= 1 yr	1.8 ASAE 1999	0.83 USDA 1996a	0.39 Hill 1982	10.8 USDA 1996a
Pullets	1.8 ASAE 1999	0.62 USDA 1996a	0.39 Hill 1982	9.7 USDA 1996a
Other Chickens	1.8 ASAE 1999	0.83 USDA 1996a	0.39 Hill 1982	10.8 USDA 1996a
Broilers	0.9 ASAE 1999	1.10 USDA 1996a	0.36 Hill 1984	15.0 USDA 1996a
Turkeys	6.8 ASAE 1999	0.74 USDA 1996a	0.36 Hill 1984	9.7 USDA 1996a

NA = Not Applicable. In these cases, methane emissions were projected based on animal population growth from base year.

Table M-4: Methane Conversion Factors By State for Liquid Systems¹ for 2001

State	Liquid/Slurry and Deep Pit	Anaerobic Lagoon
Alabama	0.3511	0.7663
Alaska	0.1507	0.4845
Arizona	0.4673	0.7918
Arkansas	0.3760	0.7617
California	0.3630	0.7554
Colorado	0.2297	0.6668
Connecticut	0.2545	0.6763
Delaware	0.2823	0.6862
Florida	0.5195	0.7935
Georgia	0.3263	0.6578
Hawaii	0.5973	0.7728
Idaho	0.2311	0.6741
Illinois	0.2935	0.7202
Indiana	0.2792	0.7097
Iowa	0.2634	0.6986
Kansas	0.3401	0.7493
Kentucky	0.2726	0.6301
Louisiana	0.4542	0.7860
Maine	0.2119	0.6390
Maryland	0.2847	0.7190
Massachusetts	0.2448	0.6871
Michigan	0.2395	0.6751
Minnesota	0.2407	0.6785
Mississippi	0.4015	0.7722
Missouri	0.3252	0.7398
Montana	0.2153	0.6508
Nebraska	0.2815	0.7166
Nevada	0.2597	0.7009
New Hampshire	0.2191	0.6501
New Jersey	0.2778	0.7160
New Mexico	0.3210	0.7387
New York	0.2307	0.6683
North Carolina	0.3320	0.7473
North Dakota	0.2256	0.6612
Ohio	0.2652	0.6985
Oklahoma	0.3962	0.7681
Oregon	0.2120	0.6429
Pennsylvania	0.2610	0.7000
Rhode Island	0.2242	0.6032
South Carolina	0.3804	0.7690
South Dakota	0.2552	0.6970
Tennessee	0.2796	0.6343
Texas	0.4466	0.7817
Utah	0.2681	0.7116
Vermont	0.2134	0.6407
Virginia	0.2816	0.7142
Washington	0.2153	0.6498
West Virginia	0.2613	0.6968
Wisconsin	0.2353	0.6714
Wyoming	0.2244	0.6635

¹ As defined by IPCC (IPCC 2000).

ANNEX N

Methodology for Estimating N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from agricultural soil management covers activities that add nitrogen to soils, and thereby enhance natural emissions of N₂O. The IPCC methodology (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997, IPCC 2000), which is used here, divides this source category into three components: (1) direct N₂O emissions from managed soils; (2) direct N₂O emissions from pasture, range, and paddock livestock manure; and (3) indirect N₂O emissions from soils induced by applications of nitrogen.

There are five steps in estimating N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management. First, the activity data are derived for each of the three components. Note that some of the data used in the first component are also used in the third component. In the second, third, and fourth steps, N₂O emissions from each of the three components are estimated. In the fifth step, emissions from the three components are summed to estimate total emissions. The remainder of this annex describes these steps, and data used in these steps, in detail.

Step 1: Derive Activity Data

The activity data for this source category are annual amounts of nitrogen added to soils for each relevant activity, except for histosol cultivation, for which the activity data are annual histosol areas cultivated.¹ The activity data are derived from statistics, such as fertilizer consumption data or livestock population data, and various factors used to convert these statistics to annual amounts of nitrogen, such as fertilizer nitrogen contents or livestock excretion rates. Activity data were derived for each of the three components, as described below.

Step 1a: Direct N₂O Emissions from Managed Soils

The activity data for this component include: a) the amount of nitrogen in synthetic and organic commercial fertilizers that are applied annually, b) the amount of nitrogen in livestock manure that is applied annually through both daily spread operations and the eventual application of manure that had been stored in manure management systems, c) the amount of nitrogen in sewage sludge that is applied annually, d) the amount of nitrogen in the aboveground biomass of nitrogen-fixing crops and forages that are produced annually, e) the amount of nitrogen in crop residues that are retained on soils annually, and f) the area of histosols cultivated annually.

Application of synthetic and organic commercial fertilizer: Annual commercial fertilizer consumption data for the United States were taken from annual publications of synthetic and organic fertilizer statistics (TVA 1991, 1992a, 1993, 1994; AAPFCO 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000b, 2002) and a recent AAPFCO database (AAPFCO 2000a). These data were manipulated in several ways to derive the activity data needed for the inventory. First, the manure and sewage sludge portions of the organic fertilizers were subtracted from the total organic fertilizer consumption data because these nitrogen additions are accounted for under “manure application” and “sewage sludge application.”² Second, the organic fertilizer data, which are recorded in mass units of fertilizer, had to be converted to mass units of nitrogen by multiplying by the average organic fertilizer nitrogen contents provided in the annual fertilizer publications. These nitrogen contents are weighted average values, so they vary from year-to-year (ranging from 2.3 percent to 3.9 percent over the period 1990 through 2001). The synthetic fertilizer data are recorded in units of nitrogen, so these data did not need to be converted. Lastly, both the synthetic and organic fertilizer consumption data are recorded in “fertilizer year” totals (i.e., July to June); therefore, the data were converted to calendar year totals. This was done by assuming that approximately 35 percent of fertilizer usage occurred from July to December, and 65 percent from January to June (TVA 1992b). July to December values were

¹ Histosols are soils with a high organic carbon content. All soils with more than 20 to 30 percent organic matter by weight (depending on the clay content) are classified as histosols (Brady and Weil 1999).

² Organic fertilizers included in these publications are manure, compost, dried blood, sewage sludge, tankage, and “other.” (Tankage is dried animal residue, usually freed from fat and gelatin). The manure and sewage sludge used as commercial fertilizer are accounted for elsewhere, so these were subtracted from the organic fertilizer statistics to avoid double counting.

not available for calendar year 2001, so a “least squares line” statistical extrapolation using the previous eleven years of data was used to arrive at an approximate value. Annual consumption of commercial fertilizers—synthetic and non-manure/non-sewage organic—in units of nitrogen and on a calendar year basis are presented in Table N-1.

Application of livestock manure: To estimate the amount of livestock manure nitrogen applied to soils, it was assumed that all of the manure produced by livestock would be applied to soils with two exceptions. These exceptions were: (1) the portion of poultry manure that is used as a feed supplement for ruminants, and (2) the manure that is deposited on soils by livestock on pasture, range, and paddock. In other words, all of the manure that is managed, except the portion of poultry manure that is used as a feed supplement, is assumed to be applied to soils. The amount of managed manure for each livestock type was calculated by determining the population of animals that were on feedlots or otherwise housed in order to collect and manage the manure. In some instances, the number of animals in managed systems was determined by subtracting the number of animals in pasture, range, and paddock from the total animal population for a particular animal type.

Annual animal population data for all livestock types, except horses and goats, were obtained for all years from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994b,c; 1995a,b; 1998a,c; 1999a-c; 2000a-g; 2001b-g; 2002b-g). Horse population data were obtained from the FAOSTAT database (FAO 2002). Goat population data for 1992 and 1997 were obtained from the Census of Agriculture (USDA 1999d); these data were interpolated and extrapolated to derive estimates for the other years. Information regarding poultry turnover (i.e., slaughter) rate was obtained from state Natural Resource Conservation Service personnel (Lange 2000). Additional population data for different farm size categories for dairy and swine were obtained from the Census of Agriculture (USDA 1999e).

Information regarding the percentage of manure handled using various manure management systems for dairy cattle, beef cattle, and sheep was obtained from communications with personnel from state Natural Resource Conservation Service offices, state universities, National Agricultural Statistics Service, and other experts (Poe et al. 1999, Anderson 2000, Deal 2000, Johnson 2000, Miller 2000, Milton 2000, Stettler 2000, Sweeten 2000, Wright 2000). Information regarding the percentage of manure handled using various manure management systems for swine, poultry, goats, and horses was obtained from Safley et al. (1992). A more detailed discussion of manure management system usage is provided in Annex M.

Once the animal populations for each livestock type and management system were estimated, these populations were then multiplied by an average animal mass constant (USDA 1996, USDA 1998d, ASAE 1999, Safley 2000) to derive total animal mass for each animal type in each management system. Total Kjeldahl nitrogen³ excreted per year for each livestock type and management system was then calculated using daily rates of nitrogen excretion per unit of animal mass (USDA 1996, ASAE 1999). The total poultry manure nitrogen in managed systems was reduced by the amount assumed to be used as a feed supplement (i.e., 4.2 percent of the managed poultry manure; Carpenter 1992). The annual amounts of Kjeldahl nitrogen were then summed over all livestock types and management systems to derive estimates of the annual manure nitrogen applied to soils (Table N-2).

Application of sewage sludge: Estimates of annual nitrogen additions from land application of sewage sludge were derived from periodic estimates of sludge generation and disposal rates that were developed by EPA. Sewage sludge is generated from the treatment of raw sewage in public or private wastewater treatment works. Based on a 1988 questionnaire returned from 600 publicly owned treatment works (POTWs), the EPA estimated that 5.4 million metric tons of dry sewage sludge were generated by POTWs in the United States in that year (EPA 1993). Of this total, 33.3 percent was applied to land, including agricultural applications, compost manufacture, forest land application, and the reclamation of mining areas. A subsequent EPA report (EPA 1999) compiled data from several national studies and surveys, and estimated that approximately 6.7 and 6.9 million metric tons of dry sewage sludge were generated in 1996 and 1998, respectively, from all treatment works, and projected that approximately 7.1 million metric tons would be generated in 2000. The same study concluded that 60 percent of the sewage sludge generated in 1998 was applied to land (based on the results of a 1995 survey), and projected that 63 percent would be land applied in 2000. These EPA estimates of sludge generation and percent land applied were linearly interpolated to derive estimates for each year in the 1990 to 2000 period. To estimate annual amounts of nitrogen applied, the annual amounts of dry sewage sludge applied were multiplied by an average nitrogen content of 3.3 percent (Metcalf and Eddy, Inc. 1991). Estimates for the year 2001 were held constant at the year 2000 level,

³ Total Kjeldahl nitrogen is a measure of organically bound nitrogen and ammonia nitrogen in both the solid and liquid wastes.

as no new data were available (Bastian 2002). Final estimates of annual amounts of sewage sludge nitrogen applied to land are presented in Table N-1.

Production of nitrogen-fixing crops and forages: Annual production statistics for beans, pulses, and alfalfa were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture crop production reports (USDA 1994a, 1998b, 2000i, 2001a, 2002). Annual production statistics for the remaining nitrogen-fixing forages (i.e., the major non-alfalfa forage crops, specifically red clover, white clover, birdsfoot trefoil, arrowleaf clover, and crimson clover) were derived from information in a book on forage crops (Taylor and Smith 1995, Pederson 1995, Beuselinck and Grant 1995, Hoveland and Evers 1995), and personal communications with forage experts (Cropper 2000, Evers 2000, Gerrish 2000, Hoveland 2000, and Pederson 2000).

The production statistics for beans, pulses, and alfalfa were in tons of product, which needed to be converted to tons of aboveground biomass nitrogen. This was done by multiplying the production statistics by one plus the aboveground residue to crop product mass ratios, dry matter fractions, and nitrogen contents. The residue to crop product mass ratios for soybeans and peanuts, and the dry matter content for soybeans, were obtained from Strehler and Stütze (1987). The dry matter content for peanuts was obtained through personal communications with Ketzis (1999). The residue to crop product ratios and dry matter contents for the other beans and pulses were estimated by taking averages of the values for soybeans and peanuts. The dry matter content for alfalfa was obtained through personal communications with Karkosh (2000). The IPCC default nitrogen content of 3 percent (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) was used for all beans, pulses, and alfalfa.⁴

The production statistics for the non-alfalfa forage crops were derived by multiplying estimates of areas planted by estimates of annual yields, in dry matter mass units. These derived production statistics were then converted to units of nitrogen by applying the IPCC default nitrogen content of 3 percent (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

The final estimates of annual aboveground biomass production, in units of nitrogen, are presented in Table N-3. The residue to crop product mass ratios and dry matter fractions used in these calculations are presented in Table N-6.

Retention of crop residue: It was assumed that 90 percent of residues from corn, wheat, barley, sorghum, oats, rye, millet, soybeans, peanuts, and other beans and pulses are left on the field after harvest (e.g., rolled into the soil, chopped and disked into the soil, or otherwise left behind) (Karkosh 2000).⁵ It was also assumed that 100 percent of unburned rice residue is left on the field.⁶

The derivation of crop residue nitrogen activity data was very similar to the derivation of nitrogen-fixing crop activity data. Crop production statistics were multiplied by aboveground residue to crop product mass ratios, residue dry matter fractions, residue nitrogen contents, and the fraction of residues left on soils. Annual production statistics for all crops except rice in Florida were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture reports (USDA 1994a, 1998b, 2001a, 2002). Production statistics for rice in Florida, which are not recorded by USDA, were estimated by applying an average rice crop yield for Florida (Smith 2001) to annual Florida rice areas (Schueneman 1999, 2001, Deren 2002). Residue to crop product ratios for all crops were obtained from, or derived from, Strehler and Stütze (1987). Dry matter contents for wheat, rice, corn, and barley residue were obtained from Turn et al. (1997). Soybean and millet residue dry matter contents were obtained from Strehler and Stütze (1987). Peanut, sorghum, oat, and rye residue dry matter contents were obtained through personal communications with Ketzis (1999). Dry matter contents for all other beans and pulses were estimated by averaging the values for soybeans and peanuts. The residue nitrogen contents for wheat, rice, corn, and barley are from Turn et al. (1997). The nitrogen content of soybean residue is from Barnard and Kristoferson (1985), the nitrogen contents of peanut, sorghum, oat, and rye residue are from Ketzis (1999), and the nitrogen content of millet residue is from Strehler and Stütze (1987).

⁴ This nitrogen content may be an overestimate for the residue portion of the aboveground biomass of the beans and pulses. Also, the dry matter fractions used for beans and pulses were taken from literature on crop residues, and so may be underestimates for the product portion of the aboveground biomass.

⁵ Although the mode of residue application would likely affect the magnitude of N₂O emissions, an emission estimation methodology that accounts for this has not been developed.

⁶ Some of the rice residue may be used for other purposes, such as for biofuel or livestock bedding material. Research to obtain more detailed information regarding final disposition of rice residue, as well as the residue of other crops, will be undertaken for future inventories.

Nitrogen contents of all other beans and pulses were estimated by averaging the values for soybeans and peanuts. Estimates of the amounts of rice residue burned annually were derived using information obtained from agricultural extension agents in each of the rice-growing states (see Agricultural Residue Burning section of the Agriculture Chapter for more detail).

The final estimates of residue retained on soil, in units of nitrogen, are presented in Table N-4. The residue to crop product mass ratios, residue dry matter fractions, and residue nitrogen contents used in these calculations are presented in Table N-6.

Cultivation of histosols: Estimates of the areas of histosols cultivated in 1982, 1992, and 1997 were obtained from the USDA's 1997 *National Resources Inventory* (USDA 2000h, as extracted by Eve 2001, and revised by Ogle 2002).⁷ These areas were grouped by broad climatic region⁸ using temperature and precipitation estimates from Daly et al. (1994, 1998), and then further aggregated to derive a temperate total and a sub-tropical total. These final areas were then linearly interpolated to obtain estimates for 1990 through 1996, and linearly extrapolated to obtain area estimates for 1998 through 2001 (Table N-5).

Step 1b: Direct N₂O Emissions from Pasture, Range, and Paddock Livestock Manure

Estimates of N₂O emissions from this component were based on livestock manure that is not managed in manure management systems, but instead is deposited directly on soils by animals in pasture, range, and paddock. The livestock included in this component were: dairy cattle, beef cattle, swine, sheep, goats, poultry, and horses.

Dairy Cattle: Information regarding dairy farm grazing was obtained from communications with personnel from state Natural Resource Conservation Service offices, state universities, and other experts (Poe et al. 1999, Deal 2000, Johnson 2000, Miller 2000, Stettler 2000, Sweeten 2000, Wright 2000). Because grazing operations are typically related to the number of animals on a farm, farm-size distribution data reported in the 1992 and 1997 *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 1999e) were used in conjunction with the state data obtained from personal communications to determine the percentage of total dairy cattle that graze. An overall percent of dairy waste that is deposited in pasture, range, and paddock was developed for each region of the United States. This percentage was applied to the total annual dairy cow and heifer state population data for 1990 through 2001, which were obtained from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1995a; 1999a; 2000a,b; 2001b,c; 2002b,c).

Beef Cattle: To determine the population of beef cattle that are on pasture, range, and paddock, the following assumptions were made: 1) beef cows, bulls, and calves were not housed on feedlots; 2) a portion of heifers and steers were on feedlots; and 3) all beef cattle that were not housed on feedlots were located on pasture, range, and paddock (i.e., total population minus population on feedlots equals population of pasture, range, and paddock) (Milton 2000). Information regarding the percentage of heifers and steers on feedlots was obtained from USDA personnel (Milton 2000) and used in conjunction with the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service population data (USDA 1995a; 1999a; 2000a,b; 2001b,c; 2002b,c) to determine the population of steers and heifers on pasture, range, and paddock.

Swine: Based on the assumption that smaller facilities are less likely to utilize manure management systems, farm-size distribution data reported in the 1992 and 1997 *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 1999e) were used to determine the percentage of all swine whose manure is not managed (i.e., the percentage on pasture, range, and paddock). These percentages were applied to the average of the quarterly USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service population data for swine (USDA 1994b, 1998a, 2000e, 2001d; 2002d) to determine the population of swine on pasture, range, and paddock.

Sheep: It was assumed that all sheep and lamb manure not deposited on feedlots was deposited on pasture, range, and paddock (Anderson 2000). Sheep population data were obtained from the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 1994c, 1999c, 2000g, 2001f, 2002f). However, population data for lamb and sheep on feed were not available after 1993. The number of lamb and sheep on feed for 1994 through 2001 were calculated using the average of the percent of lamb and sheep on feed from 1990 through 1993. In addition, all of the sheep

⁷ These areas do not include Alaska, but Alaska's cropland area accounts for less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. cropland area, so this omission is not significant.

⁸ These climatic regions were: 1) cold temperate, dry, 2) cold temperate, moist, 3) sub-tropical, dry, 4) sub-tropical, moist, 5) warm temperate, dry, and 6) warm temperate, moist.

Alfalfa	0	0.85	NA
Corn	1.0	0.91	0.0058
Wheat	1.3	0.93	0.0062
Barley	1.2	0.93	0.0077
Sorghum	1.4	0.91	0.0108
Oats	1.3	0.92	0.007
Rye	1.6	0.90	0.0048
Millet	1.4	0.89	0.007
Rice	1.4	0.91	0.0072

Note: For the derivation of activity data for nitrogen-fixing crop production, the IPCC default nitrogen content of aboveground biomass (3 percent) was used.

Step 2: Estimate Direct N₂O Emissions from Managed Soils Due to Nitrogen Additions and Cultivation of Histosols

In this step, N₂O emissions were calculated for each of two parts (direct N₂O emissions due to nitrogen additions and direct N₂O emissions due to histosol cultivation), which were then summed to yield total direct N₂O emissions from managed soils (Table N-7).

Step 2a: Direct N₂O Emissions Due to Nitrogen Additions

To estimate these emissions, the amounts of nitrogen applied were each reduced by the IPCC default fraction of nitrogen that is assumed to volatilize, the unvolatilized amounts were then summed, and the total unvolatilized nitrogen was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor of 0.0125 kg N₂O-N/kg N (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The volatilization assumptions are described below.

- *Application of synthetic and organic commercial fertilizer:* The total amounts of nitrogen applied in the form of synthetic commercial fertilizers and non-manure/non-sewage organic commercial fertilizers were reduced by 10 percent and 20 percent, respectively, to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH₃ and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).
- *Application of livestock manure:* The total amount of livestock manure nitrogen applied to soils was reduced by 20 percent to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH₃ and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).
- *Application of sewage sludge:* The total amount of sewage sludge nitrogen applied to soils was reduced by 20 percent to account for the portion that volatilizes to NH₃ and NO_x (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997, IPCC 2000).
- *Production of nitrogen-fixing crops:* None of the nitrogen in the aboveground biomass of nitrogen-fixing crops was assumed to volatilize.
- *Retention of crop residue:* None of the nitrogen in retained crop residue was assumed to volatilize.

Step 2b: Direct N₂O Emissions Due to Cultivation of Histosols

To estimate annual N₂O emissions from histosol cultivation, the temperate histosol area was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for temperate soils (8 kg N₂O-N/ha cultivated; IPCC 2000), and the sub-tropical histosol area was multiplied by the average of the temperate and tropical IPCC default emission factors (12 kg N₂O-N/ha cultivated; IPCC 2000).

Step 3: Estimate Direct N₂O Emissions from Pasture, Range, and Paddock Livestock Manure

To estimate direct N₂O emissions from soils due to the deposition of pasture, range, and paddock manure, the total nitrogen excreted by these animals was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor (0.02 kg N₂O-N/kg N excreted) (see Table N-8).

Sewage Sludge	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	1	1	1
Total	74	75	76	78	80	79	81	80	80	80	80	79	78

+ Less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Step 5: Estimate Total N₂O Emissions

In this step, total emissions are calculated by summing direct emissions from managed soils, direct emissions from pasture, range, and paddock livestock manure, and indirect emissions (Table N-10).

Table N-10: Total N₂O Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Direct Emissions from Managed Soils	153	155	161	154	172	162	169	176	178	176	176	177
Direct Emissions from Pasture, Range, and Paddock Livestock	40	41	42	42	43	44	44	42	41	41	40	40
Indirect Emissions	74	75	76	78	80	79	81	80	80	80	79	78
Total	268	271	278	274	296	284	293	298	299	297	295	294

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

ANNEX O

Methodology for Estimating Net Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks

This annex presents a discussion of the methodology used to calculate net changes in carbon stocks in trees, understory, forest floor, down dead wood, forest soils, wood products and landfilled wood. More detailed discussions of selected topics may be found in the references cited in this annex.

The details of carbon conversion factors and procedures for calculating net CO₂ flux for forests are given in three steps. In addition, the USDA Forest Service forest sector modeling projection system is described briefly.

Step 1: Estimate Forest Carbon Stocks and Net Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks

Step 1a: Obtain Forest Inventory Data

Forest survey data in the United States by broad forest type and region for 1987 and 1997 were obtained from USDA Forest Service, Forest Inventory and Analysis estimates of forest resources, published in Waddell et al. (1989) and Smith et al. (2001). The Forest Inventory and Analysis data include: (1) growing stock volume per acre by forest type (referred to hereinafter as “growing stock volumes”); and (2) area by timberland and other forest land, for general forest types by region (referred to hereinafter as “forest areas”). For 2001, the same variables were obtained from model results as described in Haynes (2002). (See Forest Sector Modeling Projection System below). This information was combined with separate estimates of carbon density (carbon mass per unit area) to estimate carbon stocks.

Step 1b: Estimate Carbon in Living and Standing Dead Trees

To estimate live tree biomass, equations that convert forest tree volumes to total live tree dry biomass (Smith et al. in press) were applied to the growing stock volumes by forest type and region (obtained in Step 1a). Tree biomass includes aboveground biomass and belowground biomass of coarse roots. The minimum sized tree is one-inch diameter at diameter breast height (1.3 meter). Trees less than one-inch diameter are counted as carbon in understory vegetation. Biomass estimates were divided by two to obtain estimates of carbon in living trees (i.e., it was assumed that dry biomass is 50 percent carbon). Standing dead tree biomass was calculated by applying equations that estimate biomass for standing dead trees (Smith et al., in press) from growing stock volumes. Again, standing dead tree biomass was divided by two to estimate carbon in standing dead trees. Table O-1 lists the average living and standing dead tree carbon densities by forest type, as calculated by applying the equations to the 1997 data.

Table O-1: Average U.S. Carbon Densities of Forest Components* (Metric Tons C/ha)

Region ^a /Forest Type	Live and Standing Dead Tree Carbon	Forest Floor Carbon	Soil Organic Carbon ^b
Eastern			
White-red-jack pine	77.1	13.8	196.1
Spruce-fir	59.8	40.2	192.9
Longleaf-slash pine	42.4	9.2	136.3
Loblolly-shortleaf pine	49.3	9.1	91.7
Oak-pine	57.3	11.6	82.3
Oak-hickory	76.3	6.6	85.0
Oak-gum-cypress	86.0	6.0	152.2
Elm-ash-cottonwood	67.6	23.0	118.1
Maple-beech-birch	82.5	28.0	139.5
Aspen-birch	56.0	7.6	237.0
Other forest types	1.8	2.1	99.6
Nonstocked	3.7	3.5	99.6

Western

Douglas-fir	110.8	30.7	89.6
Ponderosa pine	66.3	20.3	70.4
Western white pine	69.2	25.8	68.3
Fir-spruce	113.0	37.4	137.5
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	152.4	34.1	157.1
Larch	97.0	30.2	65.6
Lodgepole pine	67.8	23.9	62.7
Redwood	186.6	26.9	85.8
Hardwoods	89.0	9.9	79.5
Other forest types	55.4	28.2	90.1
Pinyon-juniper	20.8	21.1	56.3
Chaparral	17.5	25.7	58.7
Nonstocked	18.1	24.4	90.1

* Based on 1997 data for major forest types of the conterminous United States.

^aEastern United States is defined as states east of, and including, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. Western United States includes the remaining conterminous states.

^bSoil includes both mineral soils and organic soils (i.e., histosols); carbon densities are to a depth of 1 meter.

Step 1c: Estimate Carbon in Understory Vegetation

To estimate carbon in understory vegetation, equations based on Birdsey (1992) were applied to the database that was used to produce the compiled forest statistics in Smith et al. (2001). Understory vegetation is defined as all biomass of undergrowth plants in a forest, including woody shrubs and trees less than one-inch diameter, measured at breast height. A ratio of understory carbon to live tree carbon was calculated, and multiplied by 100 to calculate the percentage of carbon in the understory relative to that in live trees. These percentages were then averaged for each forest type in each region. This percentage was multiplied by the live tree carbon data in 1987 and 1997 to calculate understory carbon. These percentages are given in Table O-2. This procedure was used instead of applying the Birdsey equations directly, because detailed databases are not available for inventory years prior to 1987. Using estimated average values results in consistent historical carbon estimates for all survey years.

Table O-2: Ratios of Understory and Down Dead Wood Carbon to Live Tree Carbon* (Percent)

Region/Forest Type	Ratio of Understory Carbon to Live Tree Carbon	Ratio of Down Dead Wood Carbon to Live Tree Carbon
Northeast		
White-red-jack pine	2.5	10.8
Spruce-fir	2.6	13.3
Longleaf-Slash pine	2.5	10.8
Loblolly-shortleaf pine	2.5	10.8
Oak-pine	2.8	12.9
Oak-hickory	2.4	10.9
Oak-gum-cypress	2.6	11.1
Elm-ash-cottonwood	2.6	11.1
Maple-beech-birch	1.9	11.1
Aspen-birch	2.7	13.6
Other Forest Types	8.9	3.8
Nonstocked	8.9	3.8
North Central		
White-red-jack pine	1.8	9.8
Spruce-fir	2.2	17.4
Longleaf-Slash pine	2.4	7.4
Loblolly-shortleaf pine	2.4	7.4
Oak-pine	1.9	7.2
Oak-hickory	2.3	9.6
Oak-gum-cypress	2.3	9.6
Elm-ash-cottonwood	2.2	10.8
Maple-beech-birch	2.2	10.8
Aspen-birch	2.8	13.3
Other Forest Types	5.5	4.1
Nonstocked	5.5	4.1

Southeast		
White-red-jack pine	6.8	23.9
Spruce-fir	6.8	23.9
Longleaf-Slash pine	6.8	23.9
Loblolly-shortleaf pine	6.8	23.9
Oak-pine	5.2	28.0
Oak-hickory	4.4	24.2
Oak-gum-cypress	2.2	21.8
Elm-ash-cottonwood	2.2	21.8
Maple-beech-birch	4.4	24.2
Aspen-birch	2.2	21.8
Other Forest Types	11.9	2.0
Nonstocked	11.9	2.0
South Central		
White-red-jack pine	5.9	18.6
Spruce-fir	5.9	18.6
Longleaf-Slash pine	5.9	18.6
Loblolly-shortleaf pine	5.9	18.6
Oak-pine	4.4	17.3
Oak-hickory	3.7	15.0
Oak-gum-cypress	2.2	15.7
Elm-ash-cottonwood	2.2	15.7
Maple-beech-birch	3.7	15.0
Aspen-birch	2.2	15.7
Other Forest Types	16.9	1.7
Nonstocked	16.9	1.7
Pacific Northwest Eastside of Cascades		
Douglas-fir	1.6	10.0
Ponderosa Pine	2.5	12.6
Western White Pine	1.6	10.0
Fir-Spruce	1.1	15.7
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	1.6	10.0
Larch	1.6	10.0
Lodgepole pine	2.6	21.3
Redwood	1.9	25.8
Other hardwoods	1.4	8.9
Unclassified & other	2.5	12.6
Pinyon-Juniper	10.7	3.7
Chaparral	9.7	2.1
Nonstocked	9.7	2.1
Pacific Northwest Westside of Cascades		
Douglas-fir	2.0	11.9
Ponderosa Pine	2.5	18.1
Western White Pine	2.5	18.1
Fir-Spruce	1.0	13.7
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	1.0	13.7
Larch	2.0	11.9
Lodgepole pine	1.7	16.4
Redwood	2.0	11.9
Other hardwoods	4.5	3.9
Unclassified & other	1.7	16.4
Pinyon-Juniper	20.2	3.7
Chaparral	14.2	3.0
Nonstocked	14.2	3.0
Rocky Mountain, Northern		
Douglas-fir	2.6	19.2
Ponderosa Pine	2.4	19.6
Western White Pine	2.2	9.7
Fir-Spruce	1.7	14.8
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	2.0	18.7
Larch	2.2	9.7
Lodgepole pine	2.4	19.6

Redwood	2.2	9.7
Other hardwoods	1.9	14.2
Unclassified & other	2.2	9.7
Pinyon-Juniper	16.1	3.2
Chaparral	16.1	3.2
Nonstocked	16.1	3.2
Rocky Mountain, Southern		
Douglas-fir	2.8	19.4
Ponderosa Pine	4.1	21.6
Western White Pine	2.8	19.4
Fir-Spruce	2.2	17.4
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	2.8	19.4
Larch	2.8	19.4
Lodgepole pine	3.1	12.8
Redwood	2.8	19.4
Other hardwoods	9.2	26.7
Unclassified & other	10.7	3.3
Pinyon-Juniper	9.8	3.9
Chaparral	9.8	3.9
Nonstocked	2.6	15.2
Pacific Southwest		
Douglas-fir	2.3	15.5
Ponderosa Pine	2.6	15.2
Western White Pine	2.2	11.5
Fir-Spruce	2.6	15.2
Hemlock-Sitka spruce	2.6	15.2
Larch	4.6	10.8
Lodgepole pine	2.6	15.2
Redwood	4.4	9.7
Other hardwoods	2.8	11.5
Unclassified & other	9.9	3.1
Pinyon-Juniper	15.3	3.5
Chaparral	15.3	3.5
Nonstocked	2.5	10.8

* Based on data from 1997. Regions are defined in Figure 6-2 of the Land-Use Change and Forestry Chapter.

Step 1d: Estimate Carbon in Forest Floor

Forest floor carbon is the pool of organic carbon (litter, duff, humus, and small woody debris) above the mineral soil and includes woody fragments with diameters of up to 7.5 cm. To estimate carbon in the forest floor, equations developed by Smith and Heath (in press) were applied to the dataset described in Step 1a. Table O-1 shows the average forest floor carbon densities by forest type, as calculated based on the 1997 data.

Step 1e: Estimate Carbon in Down Dead Wood

Down dead wood is defined as pieces of dead wood greater than 7.5 cm diameter that are not attached to trees. Down dead wood includes stumps and roots of harvested trees. To estimate carbon in down dead wood, a procedure similar to estimating carbon in understory vegetation was used. Down dead wood was estimated in the projections by using decay rates applied to logging residue, along with equations that estimate the amount of down dead wood from causes other than harvesting. The percentage of down dead wood carbon relative to that in live trees was calculated. As for the understory carbon, average values of down dead wood were derived for each forest type in each region. This percentage was multiplied by the live tree carbon data from the dataset described in step 1a to calculate the total amount of carbon in down dead wood. These percentages are given in Table O-2. This procedure was used because detailed databases are not available for older data. By using this procedure, carbon estimates from historical data are consistent with carbon estimates from current Forest Inventory and Analysis data.

Step 1f: Estimate Forest Soil Carbon

To estimate the amount of carbon in forest soils, data for soils from the surface down to a depth of 1 meter were obtained from the STATSGO spatial database (USDA 1991). Then a spatial data set delineating forest types throughout the conterminous United States (Powell et al. 1993) was overlaid onto the soil carbon data from STATSGO. An estimate of the average amount of carbon in the soil was then calculated for each forest type. Estimates included both mineral soils and organic soils.¹ Coarse roots were included with tree carbon estimates rather than with soils. The soil carbon estimates are given in Table O-1. These estimates were multiplied by the area of forest land in each forest type for all years. Thus, any change in soil carbon is a reflection of changes in the area of forest land or changes in forest type.

Step 1g: Calculate Net Carbon Stock Changes

After calculation of all forest carbon stocks, the final step was to calculate the average annual net carbon stock change for each forest carbon pool for the years from 1990 through 2001. The net annual stock change for each pool for 1987 through 1997 was derived by subtracting the 1987 stock from the 1997 stock, and dividing by the number of years between estimates (10 years). The stocks, by definition, correspond to the stock as of January 1 of the given year. The net annual stock changes for 1997 through 2001 were derived in the same way using the 1997 and 2002 stocks. The procedure for estimating carbon stocks in 2002 is described below under the heading "Forest Sector Modeling Projection System."

Step 2: Estimate Harvested Wood Carbon Fluxes

The first step in estimating stocks and fluxes of harvested wood (i.e., wood products and landfilled wood) was to compile historical data on: the production of lumber, plywood and veneer, pulp and other products; product and log imports and exports; and fuelwood (in terms of million cubic feet of roundwood equivalent beginning in the year 1900, as described in Skog and Nicholson 1998). Data were obtained from USDA (1964), Ulrich (1989), and Howard (2001). Projected values for wood products and roundwood use were obtained from the models used for the USDA Forest Service 2000 Resource Planning Act Assessment (Haynes 2002, Ince 1994, see "Forest Sector Modeling Projection System" below). Roundwood products include logs, bolts, and other round timber generated from harvesting trees for industrial or consumer use. The harvested wood-to-carbon conversion factors presented by Skog and Nicholson (1998) were applied to annual estimates and projections to estimate the amount of carbon in roundwood and wood products. The amount of roundwood consumed was categorized according to product such as lumber, railroad ties, and paper, because the length of time that carbon remains in these products differs substantially. The dynamics of carbon loss through decay or through disposal of the product is summarized as the half-life of each product (Skog and Nicholson 1998). The resulting estimates were applied to products to derive the net carbon change in wood products and landfills. Note that, unlike forest carbon stock estimates, carbon in harvested wood products estimates are derived as a carbon stock change. In other words, the annual roundwood production is a change variable already before it is converted to carbon.

Step 3: Sum the Results from Step 1 and Step 2 for the Total Net Flux from U.S. Forests

In the final step, net changes in forest carbon stocks are added to net changes in harvested wood carbon stocks, to obtain estimates of total net forest flux (see Table O-3).

Table O-3: Net CO₂ Flux from U.S. Forest Carbon Stocks (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Description	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Forests	(773.7)	(773.7)	(773.7)	(773.7)	(773.7)	(773.7)	(773.7)	(546.3)	(546.3)	(546.3)	(546.3)	(546.3)
Trees	(469.3)	(469.3)	(469.3)	(469.3)	(469.3)	(469.3)	(469.3)	(447.3)	(447.3)	(447.3)	(447.3)	(447.3)
Understory	(11.0)	(11.0)	(11.0)	(11.0)	(11.0)	(11.0)	(11.0)	(14.7)	(14.7)	(14.7)	(14.7)	(14.7)
Forest Floor	(25.7)	(25.7)	(25.7)	(25.7)	(25.7)	(25.7)	(25.7)	29.3	29.3	29.3	29.3	29.3
Down Dead Wood	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(58.7)	(58.7)	(58.7)	(58.7)	(58.7)
Forest Soils	(212.7)	(212.7)	(212.7)	(212.7)	(212.7)	(212.7)	(212.7)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(55.0)

¹ Organic soils, otherwise known as histosols, are soils that develop in wetland areas and have greater than 20 to 30 percent organic matter by weight depending on clay content.

Harvested Wood	(209.0)	(198.0)	(202.8)	(203.9)	(210.5)	(205.3)	(205.3)	(212.7)	(205.3)	(216.3)	(209.0)	(212.7)
Wood Products	(47.7)	(40.7)	(46.6)	(54.6)	(60.9)	(55.0)	(55.0)	(58.7)	(51.3)	(62.3)	(58.7)	(58.7)
Landfilled Wood	(161.3)	(157.3)	(156.2)	(149.2)	(149.6)	(150.3)	(150.3)	(154.0)	(154.0)	(154.0)	(150.3)	(154)
Total	(982.7)	(971.7)	(976.4)	(977.5)	(984.1)	(979.0)	(979.0)	(759.0)	(751.7)	(762.7)	(755.3)	(759.0)

Note: Parentheses indicate net carbon "sequestration" (i.e., accumulation into the carbon pool minus emissions or stock removal from the carbon pool). The sum of the net stock changes in this table (i.e., total net flux) is an estimate of the actual net flux between the total forest carbon pool and the atmosphere. Lightly shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. Forest values are based on periodic measurements; harvested wood estimates are based on annual surveys. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Forest Sector Modeling Projection System

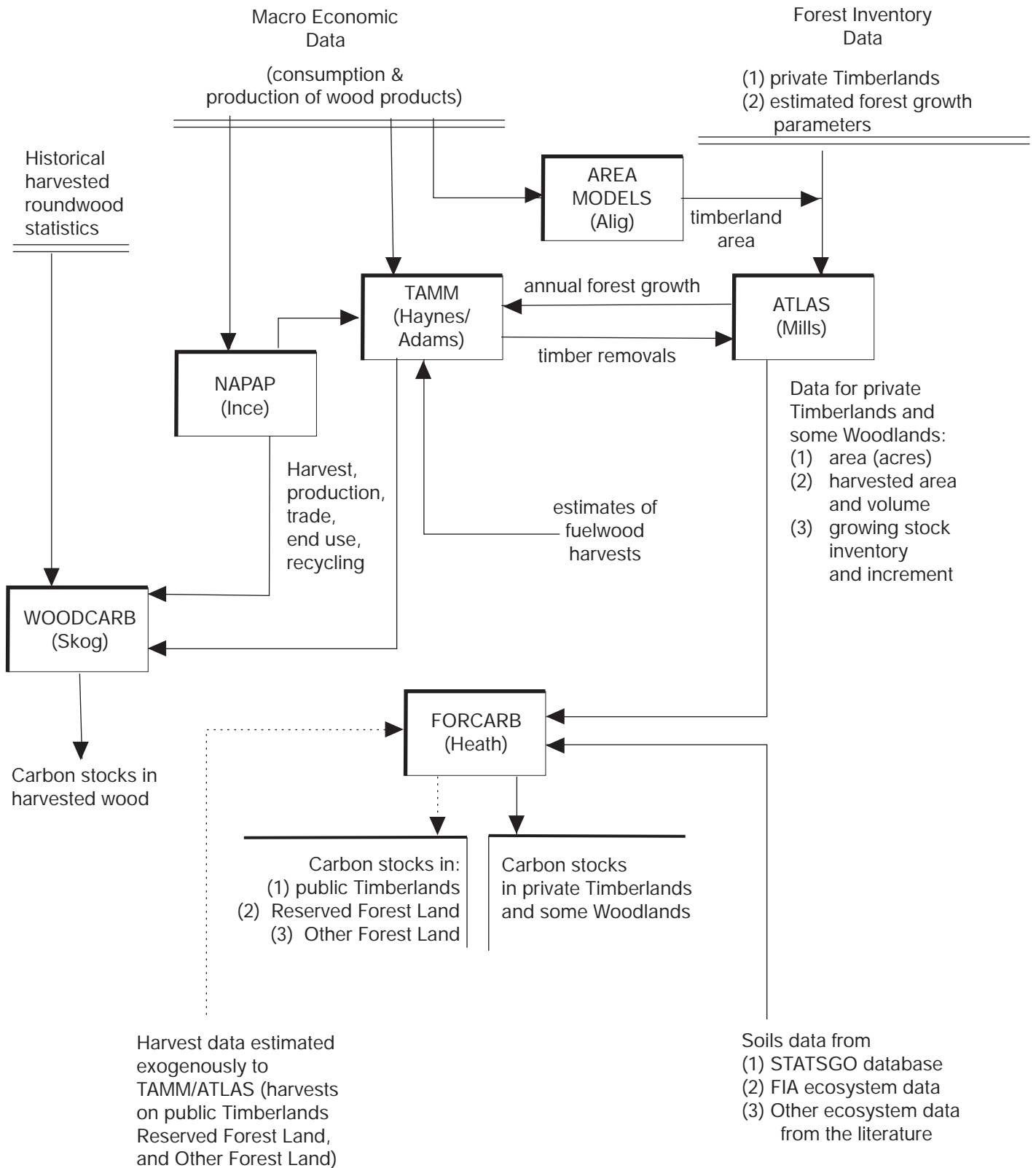
The modeling projection system is a set of models that has been used for the USDA Forest Service, Resource Planning Act Assessment since the late 1980s (Figure O-1). The models include an area change model (Alig 1985), a timber market model (TAMM; Adams and Haynes 1980), a pulp and paper model (NAPAP; Ince 1994) and an inventory model (ATLAS; Mills and Kincaid 1992). Many of these models are econometric models, designed to project the demand and supply and prices in the forest sector. Results of the projection include timber volume, forest areas, harvests, and primary product production. For a description of the assumptions and results of the modeling system, see Haynes (2002).

The FORCARB model (Plantinga and Birdsey 1993, Heath and Birdsey 1993, and Heath et al. 1996) uses data on timber volume, forest areas, and harvests from the modeling system to estimate carbon in trees using biometrical relationships between carbon and live tree volume. FORCARB estimates carbon in all other forest ecosystem components, producing carbon density estimates similar to those in Table O-1 and Table O-2. The model WOODCARB (Skog and Nicholson 1998) uses harvested roundwood product statistics, along with end-use, decay rate, and duration information to estimate carbon in harvested wood.

Figure O-1 illustrates the connections between the various models, data inputs, and data outputs that comprise the forest sector modeling projection system. Names of model authors are in parentheses in each model box to facilitate identification of model citations. Data that are external to the models are marked with double lines.

Figure O-1: Forest Sector Modeling Projection System

Figure 0-1: Forest Sector Modeling Projection System



ANNEX P

Methodology for Estimating Net Changes in Carbon Stocks in Mineral and Organic Soils

This annex presents a discussion of the methodology used to calculate annual carbon flux from mineral and organic soils under agricultural management, based on changes in soil organic carbon storage. The methodology uses a modified version of the IPCC method and a Monte Carlo uncertainty analysis, with the most detailed data available for the United States. As part of this analysis, U.S.-specific reference carbon stocks and management factor values were derived, along with their uncertainty as represented in probability density functions. These were used to estimate soil organic carbon stocks for 1982, 1992, and 1997, which coincide with the years of the 1997 *National Resources Inventory* (NRCS 2000). More detailed discussions of selected topics may be found in the references cited in this annex. The details of carbon conversion factors and step-by-step details of calculating net CO₂ flux for mineral and organic soils are given in four steps.

Step 1: Obtain Data on Climate, Soil Types, Land-Use and Land Management Activity Over Time, and Estimate Management Factors Quantifying the Effect of Management Change on Soil Organic Carbon Storage

Step 1a: Climate and Soils

The IPCC inventory methodology for agricultural soils divides climate into eight distinct zones based upon average annual temperature, average annual precipitation, and the length of the dry season (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) (see Table P-1). Six of these climate zones occur in the conterminous United States and Hawaii (Eve et al. 2001).

Table P-1: Characteristics of the IPCC Climate Zones that Occur in the United States

Climate Zone	Annual Average Temperature (°C)	Average Annual Precipitation (mm)	Length of Dry Season (months)
Cold Temperate, Dry	< 10	< Potential Evapotranspiration	NA
Cold Temperate, Moist	< 10	≥ Potential Evapotranspiration	NA
Warm Temperate, Dry	10 – 20	< 600	NA
Warm Temperate, Moist	10 – 20	≥ Potential Evapotranspiration	NA
Sub-Tropical, Dry*	> 20	< 1,000	Usually long
Sub-Tropical, Moist (w/short dry season)*	> 20	1,000 – 2,000	< 5

* The climate characteristics listed in the table for these zones are those that correspond to the tropical dry and tropical moist zones of the IPCC. They have been renamed “sub-tropical” here.

Climate in the United States is monitored through an extensive network of National Weather Service cooperative weather stations. Other national agencies also maintain specific climate databases such as the USDA-NRCS Snotel network and the National Climatic Data Center Global Gridded Upper Air Statistics database. The Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model has combined the 1961 through 1990 averages from each of these sources with topographic information derived from digital elevation models, generating a grid (4 km x 4 km grid cells) of temperature and precipitation estimates for the United States (Daly et al. 1994, Daly et al. 1998). Average annual precipitation and average annual temperature were derived for the 180 Major Land Resource Areas in the United States from Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model outputs, and an IPCC climate zone was assigned to each Major Land Resource Area (see Figure P-1). Each Major Land Resource Area represents a geographic unit with relatively similar soils, climate, water resources, and land uses (NRCS 1981).

Figure P-1. Major Land Resource Areas by IPCC Climate Zone

Soils were classified into one of seven classes based upon texture, morphology, and ability to store organic matter (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Six of the categories are mineral types and one is organic (i.e., histosol). Reference carbon stocks, representing estimates from conventionally managed cropland, were computed for each of the mineral soil types across the various climate zones, based on pedon data from the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997) (see Table P-2). These stocks are used in conjunction with management factors to compute the modified carbon stocks that result from management and land-use change. Probability density functions, which represent the variability in the stock estimates, were constructed as normal densities based on the mean and variance from the pedon data. Pedon locations were clumped in various parts of the country, which reduces the statistical independence of individual pedon estimates. To account for this lack of independence, samples from each climate by soil zone were tested for spatial autocorrelation using the Moran's I test, and variance terms were inflated by 10 percent for all zones with significant p-values.

Table P-2: U.S. Soil Groupings Based on the IPCC Categories and Dominant Taxonomic Soil, and Reference Carbon Stocks (Metric Tons C/ha)

IPCC Inventory Soil Categories	USDA Taxonomic Soil Orders	Climate Regions					
		Cold Temperate, Dry	Cold Temperate, Moist	Warm Temperate, Dry	Warm Temperate, Moist	Sub- Tropical, Dry	Sub- Tropical, Moist
High Clay Activity Mineral Soils	Vertisols, Mollisols, Inceptisols, Aridisols, and high base status Alfisols	42 (n = 133)	65 (n = 526)	37 (n = 203)	51 (n = 424)	42 (n = 26)	57 (n = 12)
Low Clay Activity Mineral Soils	Ultisols, Oxisols, acidic Alfisols, and many Entisols	45 (n = 37)	52 (n = 113)	25 (n = 86)	40 (n = 300)	39 (n = 13)	47 (n = 7)
Sandy Soils	Any soils with greater than 70 percent sand and less than 8 percent clay (often Entisols)	24 (n = 5)	40 (n = 43)	16 (n = 19)	30 (n = 102)	33 (n = 186)	50 (n = 18)
Volcanic Soils	Andisols	124 (n = 12)	114 (n = 2)	124 (n = 12)	124 (n = 12)	124 (n = 12)	128 (n = 9)
Spodic Soils	Spodosols	86 (n=20)	74 (n = 13)	86 (n=20)	107 (n = 7)	86 (n=20)	86 (n=20)
Aquic Soils	Soils with Aquic suborder	86 (n = 4)	89 (n = 161)	48 (n = 26)	51 (n = 300)	63 (n = 503)	48 (n = 12)
Organic Soils*	Histosols	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

* Carbon stocks are not needed for organic soils.

Notes: Carbon stocks are for the top 30 cm of the soil profile, and were estimated from pedon data available in the National Soil Survey Characterization database (NRCS 1997); sample size provided in parentheses.

Step1b: Land Use and Management Activity Data

Land use and management data for 1982, 1992, and 1997 were obtained from the *1997 National Resources Inventory* (NRCS 2000). The *1997 National Resources Inventory* is a stratified multi-stage design, where primary sample units are stratified on the basis of county and township boundaries defined by the U.S. Public Land Survey (Nusser and Goebel 1997). Within a primary sample unit, typically a 160-acre (64.75 ha) square quarter-section, three sample points are selected according to a restricted randomization procedure. Each point in the survey is assigned an area weight (expansion factor) based on other known areas and land use information (Nusser and Goebel 1997). An extensive amount of soils, land use, and land management data are collected during each survey, which occurs every five years (Nusser et al. 1998). Primary sources for data include aerial photography and remote sensing materials as well as field visits and county office records.

Land use information in the *1997 National Resources Inventory* was merged into a set of land use and management systems relevant for the soil organic carbon calculations based on the IPCC method (see Table P-3). Each National Resources Inventory point was assigned to a system based upon the land use data collected in 1982, 1992, and 1997 (NRCS 2000). Each National Resources Inventory point contains information on land use from the inventory year as well as three previous years. The four years of land use data were used to assign National Resources Inventory points to an agricultural system. Inventory data for the years 1979 through 1982 were used to define the 1982 land use, 1989 through 1992 for the 1992 land use, and 1994 through 1997 for the 1997 land use. National Resources Inventory points were assigned an IPCC soil type using soil taxonomy and texture information in the soils database that accompanies the *1997 National Resources Inventory* data (NRCS 2000). In addition, points were assigned to an IPCC climate zone based on location within Major Land Resource Areas. More than 400,000 National Resources Inventory points were included in the inventory calculations that had been identified as

cropland or grazing land in 1992 or 1997. Each point represents a specific land area based upon the weighted expansion factors.

Table P-3. Land Use and Management Categories

General Land Use		IPCC Category	
Categories	Specific Management Related Sub-Categories	Mineral Soils	Organic Soils
Agricultural (Cropland and Grazing Land)			
	Irrigated Crops	High Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Continuous Row Crops	Medium Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Continuous Small Grains	Medium Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Continuous Row Crops and Small Grains	Medium Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Row Crops in Rotation with Hay and/or Pasture	High Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Small Grains in Rotation with Hay and/or Pasture	High Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Row Crops and Small Grains in Rotation with Hay and/or Pasture	High Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Vegetable Crops	Low Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Low Residue Annual Crops (e.g., Tobacco or Cotton)	Low Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Small Grains with Fallow	Low Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Row Crops and Small Grains with Fallow	Low Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Row Crops with Fallow	Low Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Miscellaneous Crop Rotations	Medium Input Cultivation	Cultivated Crops
	Continuous Rice	Improved Land ¹	Undrained
	Rice in Rotation with other crops	Improved Land ¹	Undrained
	Continuous Perennial or Horticultural Crops	Improved Land ¹	Pasture/Forest
	Continuous Hay	Uncultivated Land (General)	Pasture/Forest
	Continuous Hay with Legumes or Irrigation	Improved Land ¹	Pasture/Forest
	Conservation Reserve Program	Uncultivated Land (Set-aside)	Undrained
	Rangeland	Uncultivated Land (General)	Undrained
	Continuous Pasture	Uncultivated Land (General)	Pasture/Forest
	Continuous Pasture with Legumes or Irrigation	Improved Land ¹	Pasture/Forest
	Aquaculture ²	Not Estimated	Not Estimated
Non-Agricultural³			
	Forest	Uncultivated Land (General)	Pasture/Forest
	Federal	Uncultivated Land (General)	Undrained
	Water ²	Not Estimated	Not Estimated
	Urban Land ²	Not Estimated	Not Estimated
	Miscellaneous ^{2,4}	Not Estimated	Not Estimated

Note: These land use and management categories were derived through analysis of the *1997 National Resources Inventory* data (NRCS 2000).

¹ Improved land increases soil organic carbon storage above the levels found in general land-use changes.

² Assume no change in carbon stocks when converting to or from these land uses because of a lack of information about the effect of these practices on soil organic carbon storage.

³ Some non-agricultural land is included in the inventory because it was an agricultural land use in 1992 or 1997.

⁴ Includes a variety of land uses from roads, beaches, and marshes to mining and gravel pits.

Probability density functions for the *1997 National Resources Inventory* land use data were assumed to be multivariate normal, and they were constructed to have a mean vector equal to the vector of total areas in different land use categories for different years of inventory, and to have a covariance matrix equal to the sampling covariance matrix computed from the *1997 National Resources Inventory* data. Through this approach, interdependencies in land use were taken into account resulting from the likelihood that current use is correlated with past use.

Data on tillage practices are not reported in the *1997 National Resources Inventory*, but have been collected by the Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC 1998). Each year the Conservation Technology Information Center conducts a Crop Residue Management survey to estimate the portion of cropland managed under the various tillage systems. Probability density functions were constructed for the Conservation Technology Information Center data as bivariate normal on a log-ratio scale, to reflect negative dependence among tillage classes and to ensure that simulated tillage percentages were non-negative and summed to 100 percent. Conservation Technology Information Center data do not differentiate between continuous and intermittent use of no-tillage, which is important for estimating soil organic carbon storage. Thus regional-based estimates for continuous no-tillage (defined as 5 or more years of continuous use) were modified based on consultation with

Conservation Technology Information Center experts (downward adjustment of total no-tillage acres reported, Towery 2001).

Wetlands enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program have been restored in the Northern Prairie Pothole Region through the Partners for Wildlife Program funded by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. The amount of restored wetlands was estimated from contract agreements (Euliss and Gleason 2002). While the contracts provide reasonable estimates of the amount of land restored in the region, they do not provide the information necessary to estimate uncertainty. Consequently, a nominal ± 50 percent range was used to construct the probability density functions for the uncertainty analysis.

Probability density functions for manure and sludge application on cropland and grazing land have not been developed because minimal data exist on where and how much manure and sludge has been applied. Consequently, the impact of manure management on soil organic carbon was not part of the base inventory calculation (i.e., uncertainty analysis). Rather, a separate estimation was made for the contribution of manure and sludge management to soil C stocks, and the resulting changes were combined with the uncertainty calculation during post processing.

The amount of manure nitrogen and sewage sludge nitrogen produced each year, including the amount of each that was available for application on agricultural lands, was provided in the Agricultural Soil Management section of the Agriculture chapter of this volume. Manure and sewage sludge nitrogen were assumed to be applied at the assimilative capacity for crops (Kellogg et al. 2000). Assimilative capacity is the amount of nutrients taken up by a crop and removed at harvest, and it may vary from year to year because it is based on specific crop yields during the respective year (Kellogg et al. 2000). Total manure nitrogen and sewage sludge nitrogen available for application was divided by the assimilative capacity to estimate the total land area over which the manure and sewage sludge had been applied. Supplemental data are available regarding the amount of cropland area receiving manure and sewage sludge for major crops in the United States (ERS 2000). The percentage of fields receiving manure and sewage sludge had been estimated between 1990 and 1997 for corn, soybeans, winter wheat, cotton, and potatoes. This information was used in conjunction with the USDA *National Agricultural Statistics Database* (NASS 2002), which provides information on the amount of land planted to each crop, for estimating the cropland area receiving manure and sewage sludge. The remaining area receiving manure and sewage sludge was assumed to occur in grazing lands (calculated as the difference between the total area receiving manure and sewage sludge and the cropland area receiving manure and sewage sludge).

Step 1c: Management Factors Quantifying the Effect of Land Use and Management Change on Soil Organic Carbon Storage

Management factors representative of U.S. conditions were estimated from published studies. The numerical factors quantify the impact on soil organic carbon storage resulting from changing land use and management on soil organic carbon storage, including tillage practices, cropping rotation or intensification, and land conversions between cultivated and native conditions (including set-asides in the Conservation Reserve Program). Studies from the United States and Canada were used in this analysis under the assumption that they would best represent management impacts for this inventory. Also, studies had to report soil organic carbon stocks (or information to compute stocks), depth of sampling, and the number of years since a management change. The data were synthesized in linear mixed-effects models, accounting for both fixed and random effects. Fixed effects included depth, number of years since a management change, and the type of management change (e.g., reduced tillage vs. no-till). For depth increments, the data were not aggregated for the carbon stock measurements; each depth increment (e.g., 0-5 cm, 5-10 cm, and 10-30 cm) was included as a separate point in the dataset. Similarly, time series data were not aggregated in these datasets. Consequently, random effects were needed to account for the interdependence in times series data and the interdependence among data points representing different depth increments from the same study. Factors were estimated for the effect of management practices at 20 years for the top 30 cm of the soil (see Table P-4). Variance was calculated for each of the U.S. factor values, and used to construct probability density functions with a normal density. In the IPCC method, specific factor values are given for improved pastures and for wetland rice, both of which yield carbon stocks higher than for nominal uncultivated systems. The higher stocks are associated with increased productivity and C inputs (relative to native grasslands) on improved pastures and reduced decomposition due to periodic flooding in rice cultivation. (Improved pastures are identified in the *1997 National Resources Inventory* as pastures that were irrigated or seeded with legumes.). There

were insufficient field studies to re-estimate factor values for these systems and thus the IPCC defaults were used, along with a nominal ± 50 percent range to construct the probability density function for the uncertainty analysis.

Table P-4. Management Factors for the United States and the IPCC Default Values

	IPCC default	U.S. factor
Land-Use Change		
Cultivated ¹	1	1
General Uncultivated ^{1,2}	1.4	1.3 (± 0.04)
Set-Aside ¹	1.25	1.2 (± 0.03)
Improved Pasture Lands³	1.1	1.1
Wetland Rice Production³	1.1	1.1
Tillage		
Conventional Till	1	1
Reduced Till	1.05	1.02 (± 0.03)
No-till	1.1	1.13 (± 0.03)
Input		
Low	0.9	0.94 (± 0.01)
Medium	1	1
High	1.1	1.074 (± 0.03)

¹ Factors in the IPCC documentation (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) were converted to represent changes in soil organic carbon storage from a cultivated condition rather than a native condition.

² Default factor was higher for aquatic soils at 1.7, but the U.S. analysis showed no significant differences between aquatic and non-aquatic soils and so a single U.S. factor was estimated for all soil types.

³ A U.S. specific factor was not estimated for land or management leading to additional carbon storage because of few studies addressing the impact of legume mixtures, irrigation, or manure applications for pasture lands in the United States, or the impact of wetland rice production in the United States.

Wetland restoration management also influences soil organic carbon storage because restoration leads to higher water tables and inundation of the soil for at least part of the year (Olness et al. in press, Euliss et al. in prep). A management factor was estimated assessing the difference in soil organic carbon storage between restored and unrestored wetlands enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program (Olness et al. in press, Euliss et al. in prep, Euliss and Gleason 2002), which represents an initial increase of carbon in the restored soils over the first 10 years (see Table P-5). A probability density function with a normal density was constructed from these data based on results from a linear regression model. Following the initial increase of carbon, natural erosion and deposition leads to additional accretion of carbon in these wetlands. Mass accumulation rate of organic carbon was estimated using annual sedimentation rates (cm/yr) in combination with percent organic carbon, and soil bulk density (g/cm^3) (Euliss and Gleason 2002). Procedures for calculation of mass accumulation rate are described in Dean and Gorham (1998); the resulting rate and variance were used to construct a probability density function with a normal density (see Table P-5).

Table P-5. Factor Estimate for the Initial Increase in Carbon During the First 10 Years Following Wetland Restoration of Conservation Reserve Program; Mass Accumulation Rate Represents Additional Gains in Carbon After the First 10 Years

Factor (Initial Increase—First 10 Years)	1.22 \pm 0.18
Mass Accumulation (After Initial 10 Years)	0.79 \pm 0.05 Mg C/ha-yr

Note: Mass accumulation rate from Euliss and Gleason (2002).

In addition, carbon loss rates were estimated for cultivated organic soils based on subsidence studies in the United States and Canada (see Table P-6). Probability density functions were constructed as normal densities based on the mean carbon loss rates and associated variances.

Table P-6: Carbon Loss Rates from Organic Soils Under Agricultural Management in the United States, and the IPCC Default Rates (Metric Ton C/ha-yr)

Region	Cropland		Pasture / Forest	
	IPCC	U.S. Revised	IPCC	U.S. Revised
Cold Temperate, Dry & Cold Temperate, Moist	1	11.2 \pm 2.5	0.25	2.8 \pm 0.5 ¹

The annual areas of mineral soil agricultural lands on which manure and sewage sludge were applied were estimated to range from 23 to 25 million hectares between 1990 and 2001 (see Table P-11 for calculations). Of this total area, manure and sewage sludge applications were estimated to range from 7.5 to 9.5 million hectares of cropland and 14 to 17 million hectares of grazing land.

Step 3: Estimate Soil Carbon Stocks

The IPCC method is a carbon accounting approach that is used to estimate carbon stock changes and CO₂ fluxes between soils and the atmosphere based on land use and management (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). For mineral soils (i.e., all soil orders from the USDA taxonomic classification except histosols), the IPCC inventory method uses reference carbon values to establish baseline carbon stocks that are modified through agricultural activities as quantified by land-use change, tillage, and input factors. For this inventory, the standard approach was modified to use agricultural soil organic carbon stocks as the reference condition, rather than uncultivated soils under native vegetation. This modification was needed because soil measurements under agricultural management are much more common and easily identified in the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997). Measurements of soils under native vegetation are uncommon in the major agricultural regions of the United States because most of the area has been converted into cropland.

Organic soils used for agricultural production are treated in a separate calculation. These soils are made up of deep (greater than 30 cm) layers of organic material that can decompose at a steady rate over several decades following drainage for cropland production (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The IPCC approach uses an emission factor to estimate annual losses of CO₂ from organic soils, rather than a stock change approach.

Mineral and organic soil calculations were made for each climate by soil zone across the United States. Mineral stock values were derived for 1982, 1992, and 1997 based on the land use and management activity data in conjunction with appropriate reference carbon stocks, land-use change, tillage, input and wetland restoration factors. Carbon losses from organic soils were computed based on 1992 and 1997 land use and management in conjunction with the appropriate carbon loss rate.

Each input to the inventory calculations had some level of uncertainty that was quantified in probability density functions, including the land use and management activity data, reference carbon stocks, and management factors. A Monte Carlo Analysis was used to quantify the uncertainty in carbon change for the inventory period based on uncertainty in the inputs. Input values were randomly selected from the probability density functions in an iterative process to estimate soil organic carbon change 50,000 times, and produce a 95 percent confidence interval for soil organic carbon change in agricultural lands.

Step 4: Estimate Average Annual Changes in Soil Carbon Stocks

In accordance with IPCC methodology, annual changes in mineral soil carbon were calculated by subtracting the beginning stock from the ending stock and dividing by 20. For this analysis, the base inventory estimate for 1990 through 1992 is the annual average of 1992 stock minus the 1982 stock. Annual average change between 1993 and 2001 is the difference between the 1997 and 1992 carbon stocks. Using the Monte Carlo Approach, soil organic carbon stock change for mineral soils was estimated 50,000 times between 1982 and 1992, and between 1992 and 1997. From the final distribution of 50,000 values, a 95 percent confidence interval was generated based on the simulated values at the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles in the distribution. For organic soils, annual losses of CO₂ were estimated for 1992 and 1997 by applying the Monte Carlo approach to 1992 and 1997 land use data and the U.S. carbon loss rates (see Table P-6). The results for 1992 were applied to the years 1990 through 1992, and the results for 1997 were applied to the years 1993 through 2001. On average, mineral soils under agricultural management were sequestering about 35.8 to 35.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually and organic soils lost about 34.3 to 34.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually (see Table P-10). Overall, U.S. agricultural soils appear to be sequestering from 0.7 to 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually, although the uncertainties are rather large, ranging from emissions of about 24.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually to sequestration of about 19.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually.

Table P-10: Annual Change in Soil Organic Carbon for U.S. Agricultural Soils Based Upon the Monte Carlo Uncertainty Analysis with U.S. Factor Values, Reference Carbon Stocks, and Carbon Loss Rates (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

	1990-1992	1993-2001
Mineral Soils	(35.8)*	(35.4)*

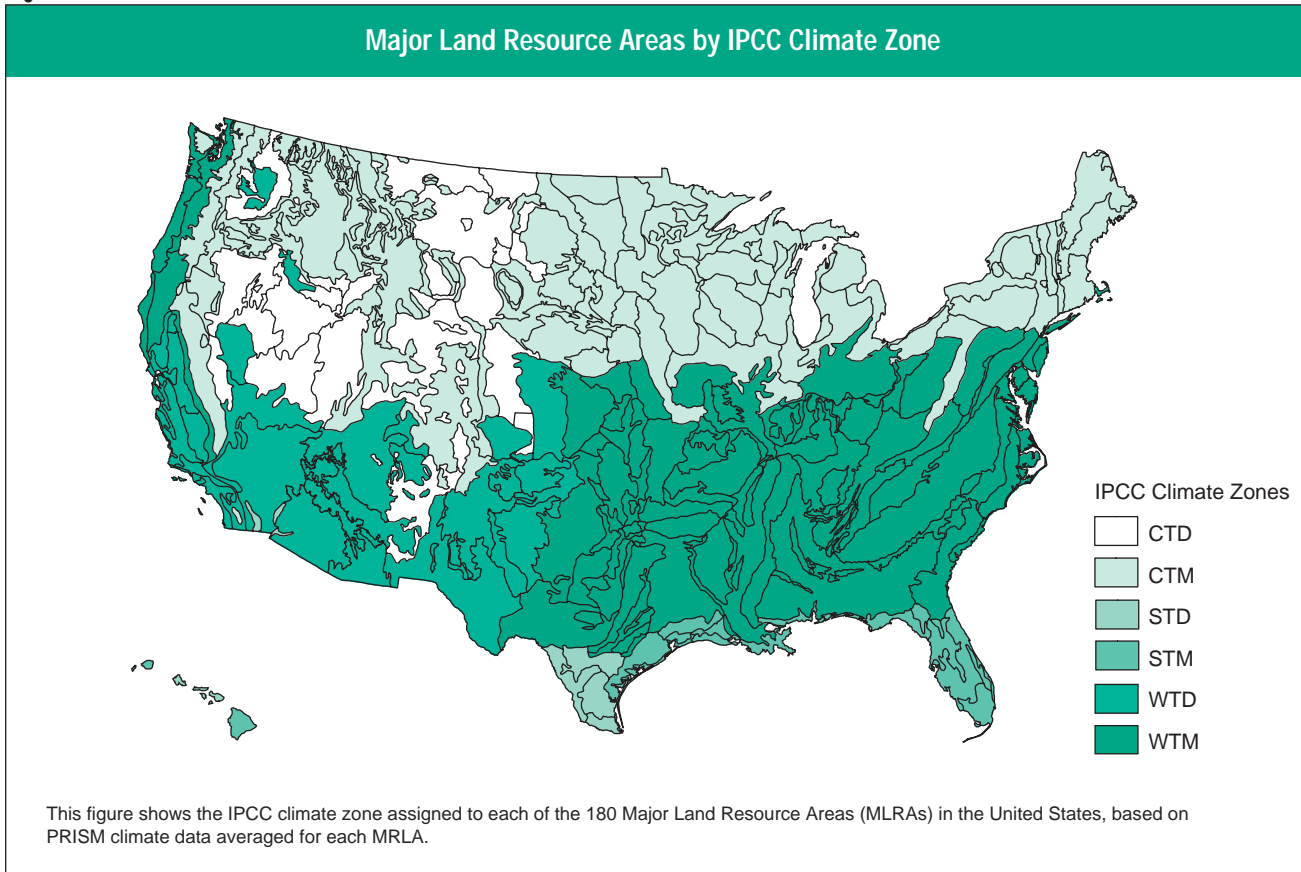
in 1998 through 2000, but with increased enrollment by 2001, agricultural lands sequestered an additional 0.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2001 relative to the baseline inventory (see Table P-12).

The sum total of the base inventory and the additional land use and management considerations (i.e., manure and sewage sludge additions, and Conservation Reserve Program enrollment in 1998 through 2001) are presented in Table P-12. Agricultural soils were estimated to sequester from 21.0 to 24.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. annually between 1990 and 2001, based on the change in soil organic carbon storage.

Table P-12: Annual Net Flux of CO₂ from U.S. Agricultural Soils for the Baseline Inventory (Uncertainty Analysis) Plus the Additional Land Use/Management Considerations (Tg)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Net emissions based on uncertainty analysis	(1.5)	(1.5)	(1.5)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)
Mineral Soils	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.8)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)	(35.4)
Organic Soils	34.3	34.3	34.3	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8
Additional changes in net emissions from mineral soils	(21.3)	(21.4)	(21.8)	(21.7)	(21.9)	(23.2)	(21.9)	(22.0)	(20.4)	(20.3)	(21.9)	(23.6)
Application of manure and sewage sludge N to crop and grazing lands	(21.3)	(21.4)	(21.8)	(21.7)	(21.9)	(23.2)	(21.9)	(22.0)	(22.3)	(22.4)	(22.8)	(23.0)
Changes in Conservation Reserve Program enrollment relative to 1997	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1.9	2.1	0.9	(0.7)
Total net emissions	(22.8)	(22.9)	(23.3)	(22.3)	(22.5)	(23.8)	(22.5)	(22.6)	(21.1)	(21.0)	(22.6)	(24.3)

Figure P-1



ANNEX Q

Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Landfills

Landfill gas is a mixture of substances generated when bacteria decompose the organic materials contained in municipal solid waste (MSW). By volume, MSW landfill gas is about half methane and half carbon dioxide.¹ The amount and rate of methane generation depends upon the quantity and composition of the landfilled material, as well as the surrounding landfill environment.

Not all methane generated within a landfill is emitted to the atmosphere. If no measures are taken to extract the methane, a portion of it will oxidize as it travels through the top layer of the landfill cover. The portion of the methane that oxidizes turns primarily to carbon dioxide (CO₂). If the methane is extracted and either flared or utilized for energy, then that portion of the methane generated will also be oxidized to CO₂ during combustion. In general, landfill-related CO₂ emissions are of biogenic origin and primarily result from the decomposition, either aerobic or anaerobic, of organic matter such as food or yard wastes.²

To estimate the amount of methane produced in a landfill in a given year, information is needed on the type and quantity of waste in the landfill, as well as the landfill characteristics (e.g., size, aridity, waste density). However, this information is not available for all landfills in the United States. Consequently, a methodology to estimate methane emissions based on available landfill-specific data on waste in place (WIP) was developed.

From an analysis of the population of MSW landfills, the quantity of waste disposed in U.S. landfills was simulated in a landfill population model, which also modeled changes in landfill size over time. An EPA study of the methane generation properties of landfilled waste was then used in an emissions model to estimate methane generation. Based on organic content in industrial landfills, methane emissions from industrial landfills were assumed to be seven percent of the total methane generated from MSW at landfills. Total methane emissions were estimated by adding the methane from MSW and industrial landfills, subtracting the amount recovered and used for energy or flared, and subtracting the amount oxidized in the soil. The steps taken to estimate emissions from U.S. landfills for the years 1990 through 2001 are discussed in greater detail below.

Figure Q-1 presents the methane emissions process—from waste generation to emissions—in graphical format.

Step 1: Estimate Municipal Solid Waste Landfilled by Individual Landfill

First, a landfill survey was used to estimate the amount and distribution of landfilled waste in the United States (EPA 1988). The survey consisted of approximately 1,100 landfills representative of approximately 6,000 landfills that were active in the United States in 1986, and included information on annual waste acceptance, size, design capacity, open year, and closure year. The landfills selected in the survey varied by age, depth, regional distribution, and other factors.

Based on the results of this survey, a population model was developed to simulate the flow of landfilled waste from 1960 through the current year. For 1960 to 1990, the data from the landfill survey were extrapolated to other years using annual waste acceptance, design capacity, open year, and closure year. For 1991 to 2001, the model distributed estimates of total waste landfilled from BioCycle's *State of Garbage in America* report across the U.S. landfill population based on the same variables.³ If landfills reached their design capacity, they were simulated to close. New landfills were simulated to open when a significant shortfall in disposal capacity was predicted. Simulated new landfills were assumed to be larger, on average, reflecting the trend toward fewer and more

¹ Landfill gas also contains small amounts of nitrogen, oxygen, and hydrogen, less than 1 percent nonmethane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), and trace amounts of inorganic compounds.

² See Box 7-1 in the Waste chapter for additional background on how biogenic emissions of landfill CO₂ are addressed in the U.S. Inventory.

³ Since the BioCycle survey does not include U.S. territories, waste generation from U.S. territories was estimated using population data for the U.S. territories (U.S. Census Bureau 2000) and U.S. per capita waste generation (EPA 2002b).

centralized facilities. The analysis updated the landfill characteristics each year, calculating the profile of waste disposal over time.

Table Q-1 shows the BioCycle estimates of total waste landfilled each year from 1990 through 2000, adjusted for U.S. territories. Regression analysis was used to develop an estimate of waste landfilled in 2001, since BioCycle data were not yet available at the time this report was published.

Step 2: Estimate 30-Year Waste In Place by Landfill for Municipal Solid Waste Landfills

Methane is generated for approximately 30 years after waste is landfilled (EPA 1993). Consequently, each landfill's 30-year WIP was estimated in order to estimate methane generation in 2001.⁴ For each landfill, this estimate was calculated as the sum of the MSW landfilled over the previous 30 years, as shown in the following equation:

$$\text{waste in place (tons)} = \sum_{t=1972}^{2001} \text{waste landfilled (tons)}$$

Closed landfills were included in this analysis, since they continue to generate methane after closure.

Step 3: Estimate Methane Generation at Municipal Solid Waste Landfills

Each landfill's WIP estimate was then converted to methane generation using the following emissions equations:

$$\text{Small landfills (< 2 MMT WIP): } \text{CH}_4 \text{ (m}^3\text{/min)} = 7.43 \text{ WIP (10}^6\text{ MT)}$$

$$\text{Large landfills (> 2 MMT WIP): } \text{CH}_4 \text{ (m}^3\text{/min)} = 8.22 + 5.27 \text{ WIP (10}^6\text{ MT)}$$

These equations are the result of a regression analysis performed by EPA of 85 large landfills in the United States (EPA 1993). Equations for small landfills were estimated by averaging the estimates of methane generation per megagram of WIP for each of the 85 large landfills. The study resulted in four emissions equations for each of the following landfill size and aridity combinations: small/arid, small non-arid, large/arid, and large/non-arid. Data on the percentage of U.S. landfills in arid versus non-arid locations were then used to develop the two weighted equations shown above.

These equations were incorporated into an emissions model that converted WIP for each landfill to methane generation. Total methane generation was then calculated as the sum of methane generation from all landfills, open and closed.

Step 4: Estimate Methane Generation at Industrial Landfills

Industrial landfills receive waste from factories, processing plants, and other manufacturing activities. Because no data were available on methane generation at industrial landfills, emissions from industrial landfills were assumed to equal seven percent of the total methane emitted from MSW landfills (EPA 1993). This estimate was based on the relative quantities and organic content of industrial waste compared to municipal waste at the time of the EPA study, as shown in the equations below (EPA 1993):

$$\frac{8.6 \text{ MMT organic waste in industrial landfills}}{65\% \text{ organic content of MSW}} = 13.2 \text{ MMT of equivalent total MSW}$$

$$13.2 \text{ MMT} \div 190 \text{ MMT total MSW in MSW landfills} = 7\%$$

⁴ Other methods exist for estimating landfill methane emissions, such as the first order decay method. However, these methods require data that are not readily available for the U.S. landfill population. In particular, landfill-specific data on the waste composition and rate of methane generation are not available for the over 2,000 U.S. landfills. EPA believes that using landfill specific data on the waste-in-place provides a better approximation of methane generation than the use of national average coefficients for model parameters that are necessary to use other methods. Consequently, EPA uses the regression equations rather than other methods that are typically applied to evaluate methane generation.

Estimates of methane generation from industrial landfills are shown in Table Q-2.

Step 5: Estimate Methane Emissions Avoided

The estimate of methane emissions avoided (e.g., combusted) was based on landfill-specific data on flares and landfill gas-to-energy (LFGTE) projects.

Step 5a: Estimate Methane Emissions Avoided Through Flaring

The quantity of methane flared was based on data collected from flaring equipment vendors, including information on the quantity of flares, landfill gas flow rates, and year of installation (ICF 2002). To avoid double counting, flares associated with landfills that had an LFGTE project were excluded from the flaring analysis. The median landfill gas flow rate provided by vendors was used to estimate methane recovered from each remaining flare. However, several vendors provided information on the size of the flare rather than the landfill gas flow rate. To estimate a median flare rate for flares associated with these vendors, the size of the flare was matched with the size and corresponding flow rates provided by other vendors. Total methane recovered through flaring was estimated by summing the estimates of methane recovered by each flare for each year.

Step 5b: Estimate Methane Emissions Avoided Through Landfill Gas-to-Energy (LFGTE) Projects

The quantity of methane avoided due to LFGTE systems was estimated based on information in a database compiled by EPA's Landfill Methane Outreach Program (EPA 2002a). Using data on landfill gas flow and energy generation (i.e. MW capacity), the total direct methane emissions avoided due to the recovery and use of methane were estimated.

Step 5c: Reduce Methane Emissions Avoided Through Flaring

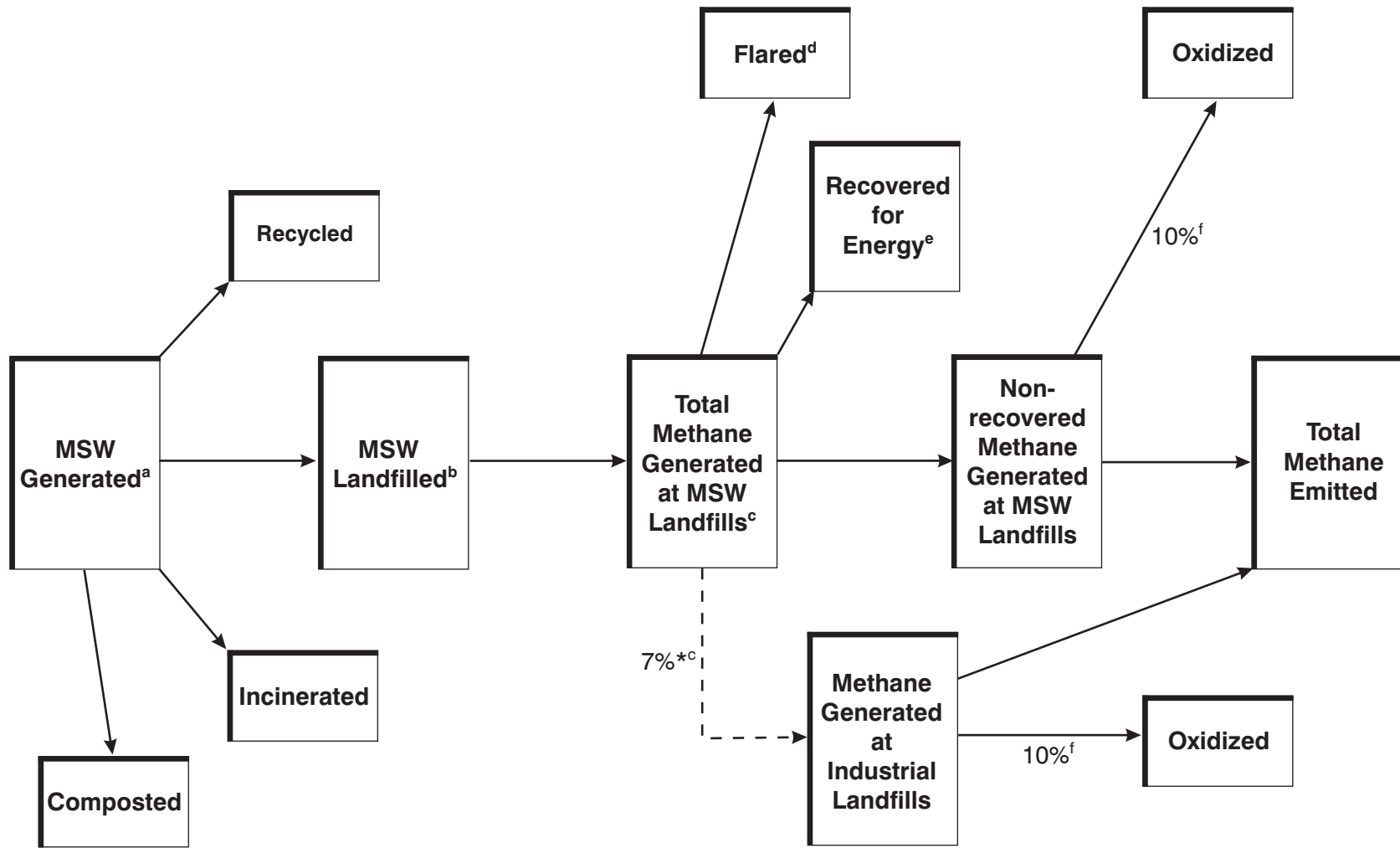
As mentioned in Step 5a, flares associated with LFGTE projects were excluded from the flare analysis. If EPA had comprehensive data on flares, each LFGTE project would have an identified flare because most LFGTE projects have flares. However, given that the flare data only covers approximately 50 to 75 percent of the flare population, an associated flare was not identified for all LFGTE projects. These LFGTE projects likely have flares, however EPA was unable to identify a flare due to one of two reasons: 1) inadequate identifier information in the flare data; or 2) the lack of the flare in the database. For those projects for which a flare was not identified due to inadequate information, EPA would be overestimating methane avoided as both the methane avoided from flaring and the LFGTE project would be counted. To avoid overestimating emissions avoided from flaring, EPA determined the methane avoided from LFGTE projects for which no flare was identified and reduced the flaring estimate by this quantity. This step likely results in an underestimate of methane avoided due to flaring. EPA took this approach to be conservative in the estimates of methane avoided.

Step 6: Estimate Methane Oxidation

A portion of the methane escaping from a landfill oxidizes to carbon dioxide in the top layer of the soil. The amount of oxidation depends upon the characteristics of the soil and the environment. For purposes of this analysis, it was assumed that ten percent of the methane produced, minus the amount of gas recovered for flaring or LFGTE projects, was oxidized in the soil (Liptay et al. 1998). This oxidation factor was applied to the methane generation estimates for both MSW and industrial landfills.

Step 7: Estimate Total Methane Emissions

Total methane emissions were calculated by adding emissions from MSW and industrial waste, and subtracting methane recovered and oxidized, as shown in Table Q-2.



ANNEX R

Key Source Analysis

This Annex provides an analysis of key sources of emissions found in this report in order to ensure accuracy and reliability of inventory estimates. The IPCC's *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000) defines a key source category as a “[source category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country’s total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both.”¹ By definition, key source categories are sources that have the greatest contribution to the absolute overall level of national emissions. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key source categories must also include accounting for the influence of trends of individual source categories. Therefore, a trend assessment is also conducted based on an attempt to identify source categories for which significant uncertainty in the estimate would have considerable effects on overall emission trends. This analysis culls out source categories that diverge from the overall trend in national emissions. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key source categories should be performed, in order to capture any key source categories that were not identified in either of the quantitative analyses.

The methodology for conducting a key source analysis, as defined by IPCC’s *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000), includes:

- Tier 1 approach (including both level and trend assessments);
- Tier 2 approach (including both level and trend assessments, and incorporating uncertainty analysis); and
- Qualitative approach.

Following this introduction, the Annex will present and analyze key source categories; discuss Tier 1, Tier 2, and qualitative approaches to identifying key sources; provide level and trend assessment equations; and provide a brief statistical evaluation of IPCC’s quantitative methodologies for defining key sources.

Table R-1 presents the key source categories for the United States using emissions data in this report, and ranked according to their sector and global warming potential-weighted emissions in 2001. The table also identifies the criteria used in identifying these source categories (i.e., level, trend, and/or qualitative assessments).

Table R-1: Key Source Categories for the United States (1990-2001) Based on Tier 1 Approach

IPCC Source Categories	Gas	Level	Trend	2001 Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
Energy				
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion – Coal	CO ₂	✓	✓	1,993.8
Mobile Combustion: Road & Other	CO ₂	✓	✓	1,538.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion – Gas	CO ₂	✓	✓	1,168.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion – Oil	CO ₂	✓	✓	671.6
Mobile Combustion: Aviation	CO ₂	✓	✓	183.9
Fugitive Emissions from Natural Gas Operations	CH ₄	✓	✓	117.3
Fugitive Emissions from Coal Mining & Handling	CH ₄	✓	✓	60.7
Mobile Combustion: Marine	CO ₂	✓		58.3
Mobile Combustion: Road & Other	N ₂ O	✓		52.6
Fugitive Emissions from Oil Operations	CH ₄		✓	21.2
Industrial Processes				
Emissions from Substitutes for Ozone Depleting Substances	Several	✓	✓	63.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production	CO ₂	✓	✓	59.1
CO ₂ Emissions from Cement Production	CO ₂	✓	✓	41.4
HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Manufacture	HFCs	✓	✓	19.8
CO ₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production and Urea Application	CO ₂		✓	16.6
SF ₆ Emissions from Electrical Equipment	SF ₆	✓	✓	15.3

¹ See chapter 7 “Methodological Choice and Recalculation” in IPCC (2000).
< <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>>

N ₂ O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O		✓	4.9
PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production	PFCs		✓	4.1
Agriculture				
Direct N ₂ O Emissions from Agricultural Soils	N ₂ O	✓		216.6
CH ₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation in Domestic Livestock	CH ₄	✓	✓	114.8
Indirect N ₂ O Emissions from Nitrogen Used in Agriculture	N ₂ O	✓	✓	77.7
CH ₄ Emissions from Manure Management	CH ₄	✓		38.9
Waste				
CH ₄ Emissions from Solid Waste Disposal Sites	CH ₄	✓	✓	202.9
CO ₂ Emissions from Waste Incineration	CO ₂		✓	26.9
Subtotal				6,769.2
Total Emissions				6,936.2
Percent of Total				97.6%

Notes: Sinks (e.g., LUCF, Landfill Carbon Storage) are not included in this analysis. The Tier 1 approach for identifying key source categories does not directly include assessment of uncertainty in emissions estimates.

Table R-2 provides a complete listing of source categories by IPCC sector and with additional comments on the criteria used in identifying key source categories. Specifically, the level assessment was performed for each year that inventory data was available (i.e., 1990 to 2001). As the emissions change over time, categories may fall under or over the threshold for being key. The following points should be noted regarding the key sources identified.

Due to the relative quantity of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion—particularly from mobile source and stationary combustion of coal, gas, and oil—these sources contributed most to each year’s level assessment. Additionally, the following sources were the largest contributors to the level assessments for each year (listed in descending order):

- N₂O from agricultural soils;
- CH₄ from solid waste disposal sites;
- CO₂ emissions from mobile combustion in the aviation sector;
- Fugitive emissions from natural gas operations;
- CH₄ from enteric fermentation in domestic livestock;
- CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production;
- Indirect N₂O emissions from nitrogen used in agriculture;
- Fugitive emissions from coal mining;
- N₂O emissions from mobile road source emissions; and
- CO₂ emissions from cement production.

The remaining key sources identified under the level assessment varied by year. The following five source categories were determined to be key using the level assessment for only part of the complete times series:

- CO₂ emissions from mobile combustion in the marine sector (1990-1997, 1999-2001);
- HFC and PFC emissions from substitutes for ozone depleting substances (1997 to 2001);
- HFC-23 emissions from HCFC-22 manufacture (1990, 1992, 1996, 1998);
- SF₆ Emissions from electrical equipment (1990-1991, 1993-1995); and
- CH₄ Emissions from manure management (1991-1999).

Although other sources have fluctuated by greater percentages since 1990, by virtue of their size, CO₂ emissions from mobile combustion from road vehicles, and stationary combustion of oil, coal, and gas are the greatest contributors to the overall trend for 2001.

builds on the Tier 1 approach by multiplying the results of the Tier 1 analysis by the relative uncertainty of each source category. This method is likely to reduce the number of key source categories under consideration. Using the Tier 2 approach, key source categories represent 90 percent of the quantified uncertainty contribution, as opposed to those that sum to the pre-determined cumulative emissions or trend threshold. A simple spreadsheet version accounts for the uncertainty contribution by applying the source category percentage uncertainty estimates to the Tier 1 level and trend assessments.

The U.S. EPA is in the process of developing a robust plan to support data gathering for both a Tier 1 and a Monte Carlo level analysis. In the Monte Carlo approach to uncertainty analysis, uncertainty estimates for each source category are developed based on (a) source category-specific input variables, such as activity data and emission factors, (b) the statistical properties underlying the input variables (i.e., the characteristics of the probability distributions of the input variables, such as mean and standard deviation in the case of a normal distribution), and (c) mathematical relationship between the input variables used to estimate the emissions for each source category (e.g., emissions = activity data * emission factor). Initial work on select sources has provided some insight into the data requirements and resources necessary to conduct a Monte Carlo Analysis. Over time, the United States seeks to conduct a Monte Carlo analysis on key sources.

Qualitative Approach

In addition to conducting a quantitative assessment like the ones described above, a variety of qualitative criteria could be applied to identify additional key source categories. The following qualitative criteria for identifying key source categories have been outlined in the *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000). A source category should be identified as a key source if:

- Mitigation techniques and technologies are being implemented to reduce emissions from the source category that are expected to be reflected in the inventory estimates;
- Significant changes in emissions (i.e., growth or decline) from the source category is expected in the future;
- High uncertainty is evident for the source category;
- Unexpectedly low or high emissions, or other order of magnitude discrepancies, are apparent for the source category; and
- Major changes in estimation methodology or data have occurred.

In many cases, the results of this qualitative approach to identifying key source categories will overlap with source categories already defined as key source categories through the quantitative analysis. However, the qualitative method may illuminate a few additional key source categories, which should then be included in the final list of key source categories. However, the application of such qualitative criteria are primarily intended to identify any additional source categories that were “just under” the threshold criteria for the level assessment and not for extremely minor source categories. Among those that are considered key from a qualitative standpoint are emissions from international bunker fuels and non-fuel use of fossil fuels. International bunker fuel emissions are not included in national totals, and are not considered in the level or trend analyses mentioned above, but are considered key from a qualitative standpoint due to their unique position within the emissions accounting framework. Additionally, non-fuel use of fossil fuels is also not included in the level or trend analyses. However, due to the significant quantity of fossil fuels consumed in the United States that are not used to produce energy (generically referred to as feedstocks), it is imperative to understand their fate and to determine how much of the consumption results in emissions, versus in stored carbon.

Level and Trend Assessments of Key Source Categories

Level Assessment

A level assessment was performed for years 1990 to 2001. Key sources were identified as any source category which, when summed in descending order of magnitude for a given year, cumulatively add up to 95 percent of the total level assessment for that year. Level estimates are based upon the following equation:

$$\text{Source Category Level Assessment} = \text{Source Category} / \text{Total Estimate}$$

$$L_{x,t} = E_{x,t} / E_t$$

Where:

$L_{x,t}$ = level assessment for source x in year t
 $E_{x,t}$ = emissions estimate for source x in year t
 E_t = total emissions estimate for year t

Trend Assessment

A trend assessment was then conducted to evaluate how significantly the difference between the source category's trend and the overall inventory trend affect the overall trend. This assessment was done by multiplying the difference between the source category trend and the total inventory trend by the source category level assessment. Trend assessments were based upon the following equation:

$$\text{Source Category Trend Assessment} = (\text{Source Category Level Assessment}) \times \left| \frac{\text{Source Category Trend} - \text{Total Trend}}{\text{Trend}} \right|$$

$$T_{x,t} = L_{x,t} \times \left| \left[\frac{(E_{x,t} - E_{x,0})}{E_{x,t}} - \frac{(E_t - E_0)}{E_t} \right] \right|$$

Where:

$T_{x,t}$ = trend assessment for source x in year t
 $L_{x,t}$ = level assessment for source x in year t
 $E_{x,t}$ and $E_{x,0}$ = emissions estimates for source x in year t and year 0, respectively
 E_t and E_0 = total emissions estimate for year t and year 0, respectively
0 = base year (e.g., 1990)

The following section of this annex evaluates these key source category analyses. The remainder of the annex summarizes the key source categories identified by these analyses, and quantifies their contribution to total level and trend assessments.

Evaluation of Key Source Identification Methodologies

Level Assessment

The Tier 1 approach for level assessment defines the source category contribution as the percentage of total inventory emissions from that source category. Only emission source categories are considered.² To determine key source categories, the level assessments are sorted in decreasing order, so that the source categories with the highest level assessments appear first. The level assessments are summed until the threshold of 95 percent is reached; all source categories that fall within that cumulative 95 percent are considered key source categories.

Since the Tier 1 approach does not explicitly incorporate uncertainties, the level assessment key source categories will be the largest contributors to total emissions but will not necessarily have large contributions to the total uncertainty. Focusing resources on improving the methodologies for estimating emissions from the source categories with the largest emissions is undesirable if those emissions are estimated relatively precisely using the current methodologies. Nevertheless, the analysis (reported in IPCC 2000) of several inventories that have source category uncertainties showed that about 90 percent of the total uncertainty could be covered by the source categories in the top 95 percent of emissions.

It is important to note that this key source category analysis can be very sensitive to the definitions of the source categories. If a large source category is split into many subcategories, then the subcategories may have contributions to the total inventory that are too small for those source categories to be considered key. Similarly, a collection of small, non-key source categories adding up to less than 5 percent of total emissions could become key source categories if those source categories were aggregated into a single source category. A consistent approach to addressing this issue is available in the *Good Practice Guidance*. Table 7.1 in IPCC (2000) provides guidance and a

² The level assessment is intended to be applied to sources and to exclude sinks. Although the assessment would still be valid if sinks were included (as unsigned values), the 95 percent threshold by which sources are deemed "key" would lose significance because it is based on an analysis (Flusgrud et al. 1999) of selected inventories where sinks were excluded.

suggested list of source categories for analysis, although countries are given some discretion based upon their national circumstances.

Some important components of other source categories were not included in the list of IPCC source categories in the key source category chapter of IPCC's *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000). These source categories include fossil fuel feedstocks, international bunkers, and emissions from U.S. territories. They are potentially large source categories that often are derived from unique data sources, have a significant impact on the uncertainty of the estimates.

Trend Assessment

The Tier 1 approach for trend assessment is defined as the product of the source category level assessment (i.e., source category emissions as a fraction, or percentage, of total emissions) and the absolute difference between the source category trend and the total trend. In turn, the source category trend is defined as the change in source category emissions from the base year to the current year, as a percentage of current year emissions from that source category. The total trend is the percentage change in total inventory emissions from the base year to the current year. Thus, the *source category trend assessment* will be large if the source category represents a large percentage of emissions and/or has a trend that is quite different from the overall inventory trend. Only emissions source categories are considered.³ To determine key source categories, the trend assessments are sorted in decreasing order, so that the source categories with the highest trend assessments appear first. The trend assessments are summed until the threshold of 95 percent is reached; all source categories that fall within that cumulative 95 percent are considered key source categories.

It is important to note that the trend assessment calculation assumes that the base and current year source category emission uncertainties are the same. Therefore, the trend assessment is a useful measure in cases where the percentage uncertainties of the base and current year source category emission levels are thought to be the same. However, its usefulness diminishes when individual source category uncertainties are different between the base year and the current year. Such time series inconsistencies could result from changes in data quality or availability over time. As more rigorous methods to determine uncertainties in emission estimates are applied, it may be necessary to revisit the results of the trend assessments.

Another important caveat to the identification of key source categories through the trend assessment is that, while each individual source category's trend assessment provides a measure of how sensitive the overall trend in the inventory is to the trend of a particular source category, the sum of a number of trend assessments does not yield the total sensitivity of the overall trend to changes in all of those source categories. In other words, the cumulative percentages should not be considered a measure of the percentage contributions to the trend from those source categories.

The trend assessment key source categories are also sensitive to the level of aggregation of the source categories; and the IPCC list of source categories may exclude some important, potentially key source category components.

³ The trend assessment is intended to be applied to sources and to exclude sinks. Although the assessment would still be valid if sinks were included (as unsigned values), the 95 percent threshold by which sources are deemed "key" would lose significance because it is based on an analysis (Flusgrud et al. 1999) of selected inventories where sinks were excluded.

TOTAL	6,139.64	6,936.21	0.09	100.00
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Note: Sinks (e.g., LUCF, Landfill Carbon Storage) are not included in this analysis.

References

Flugsrud, K., W. Irving, and K. Rypdal (1999) *Methodological Choice in Inventory Preparation. Suggestions for Good Practice Guidance*. Statistics Norway Department of Economic Statistics. 1999/19.

IPCC (2000) *Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, National Greenhouse Gas Inventories Programme.

ANNEX S

Global Warming Potential Values

Global Warming Potentials (GWPs) are intended as a quantified measure of the globally averaged relative radiative forcing impacts of a particular greenhouse gas. It is defined as the cumulative radiative forcing—both direct and indirect effects—integrated over a period of time from the emission of a unit mass of gas relative to some reference gas (IPCC 1996). Carbon dioxide (CO₂) was chosen as this reference gas. Direct effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations involving the original gas produce a gas or gases that are greenhouse gases, or when a gas influences other radiatively important processes such as the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases. The relationship between gigagrams (Gg) of a gas and Tg CO₂ Eq. can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Tg CO}_2 \text{ Eq} = (\text{Gg of gas}) \times (\text{GWP}) \times \left(\frac{\text{Tg}}{1,000 \text{ Gg}} \right)$$

Where:

Tg CO₂ Eq. = Teragrams of Carbon Dioxide Equivalents

Gg = Gigagrams (equivalent to a thousand metric tons)

GWP = Global Warming Potential

Tg = Teragrams

GWP values allow policy makers to compare the impacts of emissions and reductions of different gases. According to the IPCC, GWPs typically have an uncertainty of roughly ±35 percent, though some GWPs have larger uncertainty than others, especially those in which lifetimes have not yet been ascertained. In the following decision, the parties to the UNFCCC have agreed to use consistent GWPs from the IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR), based upon a 100 year time horizon, although other time horizon values are available (see Table S-1).

In addition to communicating emissions in units of mass, Parties may choose also to use global warming potentials (GWPs) to reflect their inventories and projections in carbon dioxide-equivalent terms, using information provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in its Second Assessment Report. Any use of GWPs should be based on the effects of the greenhouse gases over a 100-year time horizon. In addition, Parties may also use other time horizons.¹

Greenhouse gases with relatively long atmospheric lifetimes (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆) tend to be evenly distributed throughout the atmosphere, and consequently global average concentrations can be determined. The short-lived gases such as water vapor, carbon monoxide, tropospheric ozone, other ambient air pollutants (e.g., NO_x, and NMVOCs), and tropospheric aerosols (e.g., SO₂ products and black carbon), however, vary spatially, and consequently it is difficult to quantify their global radiative forcing impacts. GWP values are generally not attributed to these gases that are short-lived and spatially inhomogeneous in the atmosphere.

Table S-1: Global Warming Potentials (GWP) and Atmospheric Lifetimes (Years) of Gases Used in this Report

Gas	Atmospheric Lifetime	100-year GWP ^a	20-year GWP	500-year GWP
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂)	50-200	1	1	1
Methane (CH ₄) ^b	12±3	21	56	6.5
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O)	120	310	280	170
HFC-23	264	11,700	9,100	9,800

¹ Framework Convention on Climate Change; FCCC/CP/1996/15/Add.1; 29 October 1996; Report of the Conference of the Parties at its second session; held at Geneva from 8 to 19 July 1996; Addendum; Part Two: Action taken by the Conference of the Parties at its second session; Decision 9/CP.2; Communications from Parties included in Annex I to the Convention: guidelines, schedule and process for consideration; Annex: Revised Guidelines for the Preparation of National Communications by Parties Included in Annex I to the Convention; p. 18. FCCC (1996)

HFC-125	32.6	2,800	4,600	920
HFC-134a	14.6	1,300	3,400	420
HFC-143a	48.3	3,800	5,000	1,400
HFC-152a	1.5	140	460	42
HFC-227ea	36.5	2,900	4,300	950
HFC-236fa	209	6,300	5,100	4,700
HFC-4310mee	17.1	1,300	3,000	400
CF ₄	50,000	6,500	4,400	10,000
C ₂ F ₆	10,000	9,200	6,200	14,000
C ₄ F ₁₀	2,600	7,000	4,800	10,100
C ₆ F ₁₄	3,200	7,400	5,000	10,700
SF ₆	3,200	23,900	16,300	34,900

Source: IPCC (1996)

^a GWPs used in this report are calculated over 100 year time horizon

^b The methane GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

Table S-2 presents direct and net (i.e., direct and indirect) GWPs for ozone-depleting substances (ODSs). Ozone-depleting substances directly absorb infrared radiation and contribute to positive radiative forcing; however, their effect as ozone-depleters also leads to a negative radiative forcing because ozone itself is a potent greenhouse gas. There is considerable uncertainty regarding this indirect effect; therefore, a range of net GWPs is provided for ozone depleting substances.

Table S-2: Net 100-year Global Warming Potentials for Select Ozone Depleting Substances*

Gas	Direct	Net _{min}	Net _{max}
CFC-11	4,600	(600)	3,600
CFC-12	10,600	7,300	9,900
CFC-113	6,000	2,200	5,200
HCFC-22	1,700	1,400	1,700
HCFC-123	120	20	100
HCFC-124	620	480	590
HCFC-141b	700	(5)	570
HCFC-142b	2,400	1,900	2,300
CHCl ₃	140	(560)	0
CCl ₄	1,800	(3,900)	660
CH ₃ Br	5	(2,600)	(500)
Halon-1211	1,300	(24,000)	(3,600)
Halon-1301	6,900	(76,000)	(9,300)

Source: IPCC (2001)

* Because these compounds have been shown to deplete stratospheric ozone, they are typically referred to as ozone depleting substances (ODSs). However, they are also potent greenhouse gases. Recognizing the harmful effects of these compounds on the ozone layer, in 1987 many governments signed the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer* to limit the production and importation of a number of CFCs and other halogenated compounds. The United States furthered its commitment to phase-out ODSs by signing and ratifying the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol* in 1992. Under these amendments, the United States committed to ending the production and importation of halons by 1994, and CFCs by 1996. The IPCC Guidelines and the UNFCCC do not include reporting instructions for estimating emissions of ODSs because their use is being phased-out under the *Montreal Protocol*. The effects of these compounds on radiative forcing are not addressed in this report.

The IPCC recently published its Third Assessment Report (TAR), providing the most current and comprehensive scientific assessment of climate change (IPCC 2001). Within this report, the GWPs of several gases were revised relative to the IPCC's Second Assessment Report (SAR) (IPCC 1996), and new GWPs have been calculated for an expanded set of gases. Since the SAR, the IPCC has applied an improved calculation of CO₂ radiative forcing and an improved CO₂ response function (presented in WMO 1999). The GWPs are drawn from WMO (1999) and the SAR, with updates for those cases where new laboratory or radiative transfer results have been published. Additionally, the atmospheric lifetimes of some gases have been recalculated. Because the revised radiative forcing of CO₂ is about 12 percent lower than that in the SAR, the GWPs of the other gases relative to CO₂ tend to be larger, taking into account revisions in lifetimes. However, there were some instances in which other variables, such as the radiative efficiency or the chemical lifetime, were altered that resulted in further increases or decreases in particular GWP values. In addition, the values for radiative forcing and lifetimes have been calculated

Difference (%)	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Waste								
SAR GWP (Used in Inventory)	248.9	256.6	253.1	249.2	244.7	247.0	249.2	246.6
TAR GWP	270.8	279.1	275.2	270.9	266.0	268.4	270.8	267.9
Difference (%)	8.8%	8.8%	8.7%	8.7%	8.7%	8.7%	8.7%	8.7%
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)								
SAR GWP (Used in Inventory)	5,066.8	5,450.7	5,646.0	5,942.0	5,970.9	6,008.5	6,212.7	6,098.1
TAR GWP	5,107.6	5,488.9	5,679.6	5,974.9	6,003.3	6,039.6	6,243.2	6,127.4
Difference (%)	0.8%	0.7%	0.6%	0.6%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%

NC (No change)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

ANNEX T

Ozone Depleting Substance Emissions

Ozone is present in both the stratosphere,¹ where it shields the earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation, and at lower concentrations in the troposphere,² where it is the main component of anthropogenic photochemical “smog.” Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), along with certain other chlorine and bromine containing compounds, have been found to deplete the ozone levels in the stratosphere. These compounds are commonly referred to as ozone depleting substances (ODSs). If left unchecked, stratospheric ozone depletion could result in a dangerous increase of ultraviolet radiation reaching the earth’s surface. In 1987, nations around the world signed the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. This landmark agreement created an international framework for limiting, and ultimately eliminating, the production of most ozone depleting substances. ODSs have historically been used in a variety of industrial applications, including refrigeration and air conditioning, foam blowing, fire extinguishing, as an aerosol propellant, sterilization, and solvent cleaning.

In the United States, the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 provide the legal instrument for implementation of the *Montreal Protocol* controls. The Clean Air Act classifies ozone depleting substances as either Class I or Class II, depending upon the ozone depletion potential (ODP) of the compound.³ The production of CFCs, halons, carbon tetrachloride, and methyl chloroform—all Class I substances—has already ended in the United States. However, large amounts of these chemicals remain in existing equipment,⁴ and stockpiles of the ODSs are used for maintaining the equipment. In addition, U.S. regulations require the recovery of ODSs in order to minimize “venting” to the atmosphere. As a result, emissions of Class I compounds will continue, albeit in ever decreasing amounts, for many more years. Class II designated substances, all of which are hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), are being phased out at later dates because they have lower ozone depletion potentials. These compounds serve as interim replacements for Class I compounds in many industrial applications. The use and emissions of HCFCs in the United States is anticipated to increase over the next several years as equipment that use Class I substances are retired from use. Under current controls, however, the production for domestic use of all HCFCs in the United States will end by the year 2030.

In addition to contributing to ozone depletion, CFCs, halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and HCFCs are also potent greenhouse gases. However, the depletion of the ozone layer has a cooling effect on the climate that counteracts the direct warming from tropospheric emissions of ODSs. Stratospheric ozone influences the earth’s radiative balance by absorption and emission of longwave radiation from the troposphere as well as absorption of shortwave radiation from the sun, overall, stratospheric ozone has a warming effect.

The IPCC has prepared both direct GWPs and net (combined direct warming and indirect cooling) GWP ranges for some of the most common ozone depleting substances (IPCC 1996). See Annex S for a listing of the net GWP values for ODS.

Although the IPCC emission inventory guidelines do not require the reporting of emissions of ozone depleting substances, the United States believes that no inventory is complete without the inclusion of these compounds. Emission estimates for several ozone depleting substances are provided in Table T-1.

¹ The stratosphere is the layer from the top of the troposphere up to about 50 kilometers. Approximately 90 percent of atmospheric ozone is within the stratosphere. The greatest concentration of ozone occurs in the middle of the stratosphere, in a region commonly called the ozone layer.

² The troposphere is the layer from the ground up to about 11 kilometers near the poles and 16 kilometers in equatorial regions (i.e., the lowest layer of the atmosphere, where humans live). It contains roughly 80 percent of the mass of all gases in the atmosphere and is the site for weather processes including most of the water vapor and clouds.

³ Substances with an ozone depletion potential of 0.2 or greater are designated as Class I. All other substances that may deplete stratospheric ozone but which have an ODP of less than 0.2 are Class II.

⁴ Older refrigeration and air-conditioning equipment, fire extinguishing systems, meter-dose inhalers, and foam products blown with CFCs/HCFCs may still contain ODS.

Solvent Use	+		1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Degreasing	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	NA		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Surface Coating	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other Industrial	+		+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Non-industrial	NA		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Agriculture	NA		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Agricultural Burning	NA		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Waste	+		1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Landfills	+		+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Wastewater Treatment	+		1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Miscellaneous Waste	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total		20,936	16,892	16,682	17,091	17,189	16,013	14,802	14,324

Source: (EPA 2003)

* Miscellaneous includes other combustion and fugitive dust categories.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

NA (Not Available)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table U-2: SO₂ Emissions from Electric Utilities (Gg)

Fuel Type	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Coal	13,807	10,526	11,105	11,443	11,312	10,594	9,614	9,031
Petroleum	580	375	418	466	691	525	428	476
Natural Gas	1	8	6	5	5	151	157	181
Misc. Internal Combustion	45	50	48	51	52	54	54	55
Other	NA	NA	4	4	110	44	78	73
Total	14,432	10,959	11,581	11,970	12,170	11,368	10,331	9,817

Source: (EPA 2003)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

ANNEX V

Complete List of Source Categories

Chapter/Source	Gas(es)
Energy	
Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion	CO ₂
Carbon Stored in Products from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels	CO ₂
Stationary Combustion (excluding CO ₂)	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Mobile Combustion (excluding CO ₂)	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Coal Mining	CH ₄
Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄
Petroleum Systems	CH ₄
Municipal Solid Waste Combustion	CO ₂ , N ₂ O
Natural Gas Flaring and Ambient Air Pollutant Emissions from Oil and Gas Activities	CO ₂ , CO, NO _x , NMVOC
International Bunker Fuels	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption	CO ₂
Industrial Processes	
Iron and Steel Production	CO ₂
Cement Manufacture	CO ₂
Ammonia Manufacture and Urea Application	CO ₂
Lime Manufacture	CO ₂
Limestone and Dolomite Use	CO ₂
Soda Ash Manufacture and Consumption	CO ₂
Ferroalloy Production	CO ₂
Titanium Dioxide Production	CO ₂
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	CO ₂
Petrochemical Production	CH ₄
Silicon Carbide Production	CH ₄
Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O
Nitric Acid Production	N ₂ O
N ₂ O Product Use	N ₂ O
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	HFCs, PFCs ^a
Aluminum Production	CO ₂ , CF ₄ , C ₂ F ₆
HCFC-22 Production	HFC-23
Semiconductor Manufacture	HFCs, PFCs, SF ₆ ^b
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	SF ₆
Magnesium Production and Processing	SF ₆
Industrial Sources of Ambient Air Pollutants	CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Solvent Use	
	CO, NO _x , NMVOC
Agriculture	
Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄
Manure Management	CH ₄ , N ₂ O
Rice Cultivation	CH ₄
Agricultural Soil Management	N ₂ O
Agricultural Residue Burning	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, NO _x
Land-Use Change and Forestry	
Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks	CO ₂ (sink)
Changes in Carbon Stocks in Urban Trees	CO ₂ (sink)
Changes in Agricultural Soil Carbon Stocks	CO ₂ (sink)
Changes in Yard Trimming Carbon Stocks in Landfills	CO ₂ (sink)
Waste	
Landfills	CH ₄
Wastewater Treatment	CH ₄
Human Sewage	N ₂ O
Waste Sources of Ambient Air Pollutants	CO, NO _x , NMVOC

^a In 1999, included HFC-23, HFC-125, HFC-134a, HFC-143a, HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-236fa, HFC-4310mee, C₄F₁₀, C₆F₁₄, PFC/PFPEs

^b Included such gases as HFC-23, CF₄, C₂F₆, SF₆

ANNEX W

IPCC Reference Approach for Estimating CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion

It is possible to estimate carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from fossil fuel consumption using alternative methodologies and different data sources than those described in Annex A. For example, the UNFCCC reporting guidelines request that countries, in addition to their “bottom-up” sectoral methodology, to complete a “top-down” Reference Approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Section 1.3 of the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reporting Instructions* states, “If a detailed, Sectoral Approach for energy has been used for the estimation of CO₂ from fuel combustion you are still asked to complete...the Reference Approach...for verification purposes” (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). This reference method estimates fossil fuel consumption by adjusting national aggregate fuel production data for imports, exports, and stock changes rather than relying on end-user consumption surveys. The basic principle is that once carbon-based fuels are brought into a national economy, they are either saved in some way (e.g., stored in products, kept in fuel stocks, or left unoxidized in ash) or combusted, and therefore the carbon in them is oxidized and released into the atmosphere. Accounting for actual consumption of fuels at the sectoral or sub-national level is not required. The following discussion provides the detailed calculations for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion from the United States using the IPCC-recommended Reference Approach.

Step 1: Collect and Assemble Data in Proper Format

To ensure the comparability of national inventories, the IPCC has recommended that countries report energy data using the International Energy Agency (IEA) reporting convention. National energy statistics were collected in physical units from several EIA documents in order to obtain the necessary data on production, imports, exports, and stock changes (EIA 2002a).

It was necessary to make a number of modifications to these data to generate more accurate apparent consumption estimates of these fuels. The first modification adjusts for consumption of fossil fuel feedstocks accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter, which include unspecified coal for coal coke used in iron and steel production, natural gas used for ammonia production, and petroleum coke used in the production of aluminum, ferroalloys, and titanium dioxide. The second modification adjusts for consumption of bunker fuels, which refer to quantities of fuels used for international transportation estimated separately from U.S. totals. The third modification consists of the addition of U.S. territories data that are typically excluded from the national aggregate energy statistics. The territories include Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, American Samoa, Wake Island, and U.S. Pacific Islands. These data, as well as the production, import, export, and stock change statistics, are presented in Table W-1.

The carbon content of fuel varies with the fuel's heat content. Therefore, for an accurate estimation of CO₂ emissions, fuel statistics were provided on an energy content basis (e.g., BTUs or joules). Because detailed fuel production statistics are typically provided in physical units (as in Table W-1), they were converted to units of energy before CO₂ emissions were calculated. Fuel statistics were converted to their energy equivalents by using conversion factors provided by EIA. These factors and their data sources are displayed in Table W-2. The resulting fuel type-specific energy data are provided in Table W-3.

Step 2: Estimate Apparent Fuel Consumption

The next step of the IPCC Reference Approach is to estimate “apparent consumption” of fuels within the country. This requires a balance of primary fuels produced, plus imports, minus exports, and adjusting for stock changes. In this way, carbon enters an economy through energy production and imports (and decreases in fuel stocks) and is transferred out of the country through exports (and increases in fuel stocks). Thus, apparent consumption of primary fuels (including crude oil, natural gas liquids, anthracite, bituminous, subbituminous and lignite coal, and natural gas) can be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Apparent Consumption} = \text{Production} + \text{Imports} - \text{Exports} - \text{Stock Change}$$

Flows of secondary fuels (e.g., gasoline, residual fuel, coke) should be added to primary apparent consumption. The production of secondary fuels, however, should be ignored in the calculations of apparent consumption since the carbon contained in these fuels is already accounted for in the supply of primary fuels from which they were derived (e.g., the estimate for apparent consumption of crude oil already contains the carbon from which gasoline would be refined). Flows of secondary fuels should therefore be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Secondary Consumption} = \text{Imports} - \text{Exports} - \text{Stock Change}$$

Note that this calculation can result in negative numbers for apparent consumption of secondary fuels. This result is perfectly acceptable since it merely indicates a net export or stock increase in the country of that fuel when domestic production is not considered.

Next, the apparent consumption and secondary consumption need to be adjusted for feedstock uses of fuels accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter, international bunker fuels, and U.S. territory fuel consumption. Bunker fuels and feedstocks accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter are subtracted from these estimates, while fuel consumption in U.S. territories is added.

The IPCC Reference Approach calls for estimating apparent fuel consumption before converting to a common energy unit. However, certain primary fuels in the United States (e.g., natural gas and steam coal) have separate conversion factors for production, imports, exports, and stock changes. In these cases, it is not appropriate to multiply apparent consumption by a single conversion factor since each of its components has different heat contents. Therefore, United States fuel statistics were converted to their heat equivalents before estimating apparent consumption. Results are provided in Table W-3.

Step 3: Estimate Carbon Emissions

Once apparent consumption is estimated, the remaining calculations are virtually identical to those for the “bottom-up” Sectoral Approach (see Annex A). That is:

- Potential CO₂ emissions were estimated using fuel-specific carbon coefficients (see Table W-4).¹
- The carbon in products from non-energy uses of fossil fuels (e.g., plastics or asphalt) was then estimated and subtracted (see Table W-5).
- Finally, to obtain actual CO₂ emissions, net emissions were adjusted for any carbon that remained unoxidized as a result of incomplete combustion (e.g., carbon contained in ash or soot).²

Step 4: Convert to CO₂ Emissions

Because the IPCC reporting guidelines recommend that countries report greenhouse gas emissions on a full molecular weight basis, the final step in estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel consumption was converting from units of carbon to units of CO₂. Actual carbon emissions were multiplied by the molecular-to-atomic weight ratio of CO₂ to carbon (44/12) to obtain total carbon dioxide emitted from fossil fuel combustion in teragrams (Tg). The results are reported in Table W-6.

Comparison Between Sectoral and Reference Approaches

These two alternative approaches can both produce reliable estimates that are comparable within a few percent. The major difference between methodologies employed by each approach lies in the energy data used to derive carbon emissions (i.e., the actual surveyed consumption for the Sectoral Approach versus apparent

¹ Carbon coefficients from EIA were used wherever possible. Because EIA did not provide coefficients for coal, the IPCC-recommended emission factors were used in the top-down calculations for these fuels. See notes in Annex A.

² For the portion of carbon that is unoxidized during coal combustion, the IPCC suggests a global average value of 2 percent. However, because combustion technologies in the United States are more efficient, the United States inventory uses 1 percent in its calculations for petroleum and coal and 0.5 percent for natural gas.

consumption derived for the Reference Approach). In theory, both approaches should yield identical results. In practice, however, slight discrepancies occur. For the United States, these differences are discussed below.

Differences in Total Amount of Energy Consumed

Table W-7³ summarizes the differences between the Reference and Sectoral approaches in estimating total energy consumption in the United States. Although theoretically the two methods should arrive at the same estimate for U.S. energy consumption, the Reference Approach provides an energy total that is 0.6 percent higher than the Sectoral Approach for 2001. The greatest difference lies primarily in the higher estimate of petroleum consumption using the Reference Approach (1.9 percent).

There are several potential sources for the discrepancies in consumption estimates:

- *Product Definitions.* The fuel categories in the Reference Approach are different from those used in the Sectoral Approach, particularly for petroleum. For example, the Reference Approach estimates apparent consumption for crude oil. Crude oil is not typically consumed directly, but refined into other products. As a result, the United States does not focus on estimating the energy content of the various grades of crude oil, but rather estimating the energy content of the various products resulting from crude oil refining. The United States does not believe that estimating apparent consumption for crude oil, and the resulting energy content of the crude oil, is the most reliable method for the United States to estimate its energy consumption. Other differences in product definitions include using sector-specific coal statistics in the Sectoral Approach (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial coking, industrial other, and transportation coal), while the Reference Approach characterizes coal by rank (i.e. anthracite, bituminous, etc.). Also, the liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) statistics used in the bottom-up calculations are actually a composite category composed of natural gas liquids (NGL) and LPG.
- *Heat Equivalents.* It can be difficult to obtain heat equivalents for certain fuel types, particularly for categories such as "crude oil" where the key statistics are derived from thousands of producers in the United States and abroad. For heat equivalents by coal rank, it was necessary to refer back to EIA's *State Energy Data Report 1992* (1994) because this information is no longer published.
- *Possible inconsistencies in U.S. Energy Data.* The United States has not focused its energy data collection efforts on obtaining the type of aggregated information used in the Reference Approach. Rather, the United States believes that its emphasis on collection of detailed energy consumption data is a more accurate methodology for the United States to obtain reliable energy data. Therefore, top-down statistics used in the Reference Approach may not be as accurately collected as bottom-up statistics applied to the Sectoral Approach.
- *Balancing Item.* The Reference Approach uses *apparent* consumption estimates while the Sectoral Approach uses *reported* consumption estimates. While these numbers should be equal, there always seems to be a slight difference that is often accounted for in energy statistics as a "balancing item."

Differences in Estimated CO₂ Emissions

Given these differences in energy consumption data, the next step for each methodology involved estimating emissions of CO₂. Table W-8 summarizes the differences between the two methods in estimated CO₂ emissions.

While the use of the Reference Approach resulted in a 0.6 percent higher estimate of energy consumption in the United States than the Sectoral Approach, the resulting emissions estimated was 1.0 percent higher. Potential reasons for these differences may include:

- *Product Definitions.* Coal data is aggregated differently in each methodology, as noted above. The format used for the Sectoral Approach likely results in more accurate estimates than in the Reference Approach. Also, the Reference Approach relies on a "crude oil" category for determining petroleum-related emissions. Given the many sources of crude oil in the United States, it is not an easy matter to track potential

³ Although complete energy consumption data and calculations are not presented, comparison tables are also presented for 1990-2001.

differences in carbon content between many different sources of crude, particularly since information on the carbon content of crude oil is not regularly collected.

- *Carbon Coefficients.* The Reference Approach relies on several default carbon coefficients by rank provided by IPCC (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), while the Sectoral Approach uses annually updated category-specific coefficients by sector that are likely to be more accurate. Also, as noted above, the carbon coefficient for crude oil is more uncertain than that for specific secondary petroleum products, given the many sources and grades of crude oil consumed in the United States.

Although the two approaches produce similar results, the United States believes that the “bottom-up” Sectoral Approach provides a more accurate assessment of CO₂ emissions at the fuel level. This improvement in accuracy is largely a result of the data collection techniques used in the United States, where there has been more emphasis on obtaining the detailed products-based information used in the Sectoral Approach than obtaining the aggregated energy flow data used in the Reference Approach. The United States believes that it is valuable to understand both methods.

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Table W-5: 2001 Non-Energy Carbon Stored in Products

Fuel Type	Consumption for Non-Energy Use (TBtu)	Carbon Coefficients (Tg Carbon/QBtu)	Carbon Content (Tg Carbon)	Fraction Sequestered	Carbon Stored (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
Coal	24.9	25.63	0.6	0.75	1.8
Natural Gas	333.9	14.47	4.8	0.61	10.8
Asphalt & Road Oil	1,257.6	20.62	25.9	1.00	95.1
LPG	1,690.4	16.88	28.5	0.61	63.7
Lubricants	340.4	20.24	6.9	0.09	2.3
Pentanes Plus	239.2	18.24	4.4	0.61	9.7
Petrochemical Feedstocks	a	a	a	a	49.7
Petroleum Coke	113.2	27.85	3.2	0.50	5.8
Special Naphtha	78.5	19.86	1.6	0.00	0.0
Waxes/Misc.	a	a	a	a	14.6
Misc. U.S. Territories Petroleum	a	a	a	a	1.9
Total					255.3

[a] Values for Misc. U.S. Territories Petroleum, Petrochemical Feedstocks and Waxes/Misc. are not shown because these categories are aggregates of numerous smaller components. Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table W-6: 2001 Reference Approach CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. unless otherwise noted)

Fuel Category	Potential Emissions	Carbon Sequestered	Net Emissions	Fraction Oxidized	Total Emissions
Coal	2,015.6	1.8	2,013.8	99.0%	1,993.7
Petroleum	2,745.1	242.8	2,502.3	99.0%	2,477.2
Natural Gas	1,217.3	10.8	1,206.5	99.5%	1,200.5
Total	5,977.9	255.3	5,722.6	-	5,671.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

ANNEX X

Sources of Greenhouse Gas Emissions Excluded

Although this report is intended to be a comprehensive assessment of anthropogenic¹ sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions for the United States, certain sources have been identified yet excluded from the estimates presented for various reasons. Before discussing these sources, however, it is important to note that processes or activities that are not *anthropogenic in origin* or do not result in a *net source or sink* of greenhouse gas emissions are intentionally excluded from a national inventory of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. In general, processes or activities that are not anthropogenic are considered natural (i.e., not directly influenced by human activity) in origin and, as an example, would include the following:

- Volcanic eruptions
- Carbon dioxide (CO₂) exchange (i.e., uptake or release) by oceans
- Natural forest fires²
- Methane (CH₄) emissions from wetlands not affected by human induced land-use changes

Some processes or activities may be anthropogenic in origin but do not result in net emissions of greenhouse gases, such as the respiration of CO₂ by people or domesticated animals.³ Given a source category that is both anthropogenic and results in net greenhouse gas emissions, reasons for excluding a source related to an anthropogenic activity include one or more of the following:

- There is insufficient scientific understanding to develop a reliable method for estimating emissions at a national level.
- Although an estimating method has been developed, data were not adequately available to calculate emissions.
- Emissions were implicitly accounted for within another source category (e.g., CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion).

It is also important to note that the United States believes the exclusion of the sources discussed below introduces only a minor bias in its overall estimate of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Separate Cruise and LTO Emissions from the Combustion of Jet Fuel

The combustion of jet fuel by aircraft results in emissions of CH₄, N₂O, CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs. The emissions per mass of fuel combusted during landing/take-off (LTO) operations differ from those during aircraft cruising. Accurate estimation of these emissions requires a detailed accounting of LTO cycles and fuel consumption during cruising by aircraft model (e.g., Boeing 747-400) as well as appropriate emission factors. Sufficient data for separately calculating near ground-level emissions during landing and take-off and cruise altitude emissions by aircraft model were not available for this report. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 1.93 - 1.96)

¹ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

² In some cases forest fires that are started either intentionally or unintentionally are viewed as mimicking natural burning processes that have been suppressed by other human forest management activities. The United States does not consider forest fires within its national boundaries to be a net source of greenhouse emissions.

³ Respiration of CO₂ by biological organisms is simply part of the broader global carbon cycle that also includes uptake of CO₂ by photosynthetic organisms.

CO₂ from Burning in Coal Deposits and Waste Piles

Coal is periodically burned in deposits and waste piles. It has been estimated that the burning of coal in deposits and waste piles would represent less than 1.3 percent of total U.S. coal consumption, averaged over ten-years. Because there is currently no known source of data on the quantity of coal burned in waste piles and there is uncertainty as to the fraction of coal oxidized during such burnings, these CO₂ emissions are not currently estimated. Further research would be required to develop accurate emission factors and activity data for these emissions to be estimated (see *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 1.112 - 1.113).

Fossil CO₂ from Petroleum and Natural Gas Wells, CO₂ Separated from Natural Gas, and CO₂ from Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR)

Petroleum and natural gas well drilling, petroleum and natural gas production, and natural gas processing—including removal of CO₂—may result in emissions of CO₂ that was at one time stored in underground formations.

Carbon dioxide and other gases are naturally present in raw natural gas, in proportions that vary depending on the geochemical circumstances that caused the formation of the gas. After the heavier gases are removed during processing, small amounts of carbon dioxide may be allowed to remain in the natural gas. If the amount of CO₂ sufficiently lowers the heating value of the natural gas, it is typically extracted by amine scrubbing and, in most cases, released into the atmosphere. These emissions can be estimated by calculating the difference between the average carbon dioxide content of raw natural gas and the carbon dioxide content of pipeline gas. The Energy Information Administration (EIA) estimates that annual CO₂ emissions from scrubbing are about 15 Tg CO₂ Eq. Because of imprecision in the reporting of U.S. natural gas production and processing, emissions estimates from energy production sources may be double-counted or under-reported, and thus are uncertain.

Carbon dioxide is also injected into underground deposits to increase crude oil reservoir pressure in a field technique known as enhanced oil recovery (EOR). It is thought that much of the injected CO₂ may be effectively and permanently sequestered, but the fraction of injected CO₂ that is re-released remains uncertain. The fraction re-released varies from well to well depending upon the field geology and the gas capture/re-injection technology employed at the wellhead. Over time, carbon dioxide may also seep into the producing well and mix with the oil and natural gas present there. If the gas portion of this mixture has a sufficiently high energy content, it may be collected and sent to a natural gas plant; if not, it may be vented or flared. The EIA estimates that the amount of CO₂ used for EOR is on the order of 8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (EIA 2002), of which emissions would be some fraction yet to be defined. This figure is based on the difference between U.S. Department of Commerce (Census 2002) sales figures for industrial CO₂ (13 Tg CO₂ Eq.) minus the 5 Tg CO₂ Eq. reported by the Freedonia Group (2000) that is used for purposes other than EOR. Further research into EOR is required before the resulting CO₂ emissions can be adequately quantified. (See Carbon Dioxide Consumption in the Industrial Processes chapter).

Carbon Sequestration in Underground Injection Wells

Data for sequestration of carbon in underground injection wells is obtained from the EPA Toxic Release Inventory (EPA 2000). The carbon content of wastes reported in the EPA TRI as being injected into underground injection wells is estimated from the TRI data, and the carbon is assumed to be sequestered. The sequestration of underground injection carbon is one of the many elements in calculating the storage factor for petrochemical feedstock (see Annex C). The "base year" for this storage factor calculation is 1998 and only EPA TRI data for calendar year 1998 is used in the storage factor calculation. Further research is required if the entire time series for this potential sink is to be fully quantified.

CH₄ from Abandoned Coal Mines

Abandoned coal mines are a source of CH₄ emissions. In general, many of the same factors that affect emissions from operating coal mines will affect emissions from abandoned mines such as the permeability and gassiness of the coal, the mine's depth, geologic characteristics, and whether it has been flooded. A few gas developers have recovered methane from abandoned mine workings; therefore, emissions from this source may be

significant. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be estimated. (See Coal Mining in the Energy chapter.)

CO₂ from "Unaccounted for" Natural Gas

There is a discrepancy between the amount of natural gas sold by producers and that reported as purchased by consumers. This discrepancy, known as "unaccounted for" or unmetered natural gas, was assumed to be the sum of leakage, measurement errors, data collection problems, undetected non-reporting, undetected over reporting, and undetected under reporting. Historically, the amount of gas sold by producers has always exceeded that reportedly purchased by consumers; therefore, some portion of unaccounted for natural gas was assumed to be a source of CO₂ emissions. In other words, it was assumed that consumers were underreporting their usage of natural gas. In DOE/EIA's energy statistics for 1996, however, reported consumption of natural gas exceeded the amount sold by producers. Therefore, the historical explanation given for this discrepancy has lost credibility and unaccounted for natural gas is no longer used to calculate CO₂ emissions.

CO₂ from Shale Oil Production

Oil shale is shale saturated with kerogen.⁴ It can be thought of as the geological predecessor to crude oil. Carbon dioxide is released as a by-product of the process of producing petroleum products from shale oil. As of now, it is not cost-effective to mine and process shale oil into usable petroleum products. The only identified large-scale oil shale processing facility in the United States was operated by Unocal during the years 1985 to 1990. There have been no known emissions from shale oil processing in the United States since 1990 when the Unocal facility closed.

CH₄ from the Production of Carbides other than Silicon Carbide

Methane (CH₄) may be emitted from the production of carbides because the petroleum coke used in the process contains volatile organic compounds, which form CH₄ during thermal decomposition. Methane emissions from the production of silicon carbide were estimated and accounted for, but emissions from the production of calcium carbide and other carbides were not. Further research is needed to estimate CH₄ emissions from the production of calcium carbide and other carbides other than silicon carbide. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.20 - 2.21)

CO₂ from Calcium Carbide and Silicon Carbide Production

Carbon dioxide is formed by the oxidation of petroleum coke in the production of both calcium carbide and silicon carbide. These CO₂ emissions are implicitly accounted for with emissions from the combustion of petroleum coke in the Energy chapter. There is currently not sufficient data on coke consumption to estimate emissions from these sources explicitly. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.20 - 2.21)

CO₂ from Graphite Consumption in Ferroalloy and Steel Production

Emissions from "graphite" "wood" or "biomass" in calculating CO₂ emissions from ferroalloy production, iron and steel production or other "Industrial Processes" included in Chapter 3 of the inventory are not explicitly calculated. It is assumed that 100% of the carbon used in ferroalloy production is derived from petroleum coke and that all of the carbon used in iron and steel production is derived from coal coke or petroleum coke. It is possible that some non-coke carbon is used in the production of ferroalloys and iron and steel, but no data are available to conduct inventory calculations for sources of carbon other than petroleum coke and coal coke used in these processes.

⁴ Kerogen is fossilized insoluble organic material found in sedimentary rocks, usually shales, which can be converted to petroleum products by distillation.

Non-fuel uses of coal coke and petroleum coke are accounted for in the Industrial Process chapter, either directly for iron and steel, aluminum, ferroalloy, and titanium dioxide production, or indirectly by applying a storage factor to "uncharacterized" non-fuel uses of petroleum coke and coal coke.

Non-fuel uses of wood and biomass are not accounted for in the Energy or Industrial Process chapters, as all uses of wood and biomass are accounted for in the Land Use and Forestry chapter. It is assumed for the purposes of the CO₂ emission calculation that no wood or other biogenic carbon is used in any of these industrial processes. Some biogenic carbon may be used in these industrial processes but sufficient data to estimate emissions are not available.

Consumption of either natural or synthetic graphite is not explicitly accounted for in the Industrial Process chapter. It is assumed that all of the carbon used in manufacturing carbon anodes for production of aluminum, ferroalloys, and electric arc furnace (EAF) steel are derived directly from petroleum coke and coal tar pitch (a coal coke byproduct), not from natural graphite or synthetic graphite sources. Some amount of carbon used in these industrial processes may be derived from natural or synthetic graphite sources, but sufficient data to estimate emissions are not currently available.

CH₄ from Production of Iron and Steel

Iron and steel production is a source of CH₄ emissions. Coke and sinter are raw materials for the production of pig iron, and pig iron is a raw material for the production of steel. Coke is produced by heating coal in the absence of oxygen, which releases CH₄ as a byproduct. Coke, iron ore, and flux materials are then combined to form sinter. Coke is burned to produce heat, causing the sinter to agglomerate and releasing CH₄ as a byproduct. Coke and iron, in the form of ore, pellets, or sinter, are then added to flux materials in a blast furnace, and are reduced to pig iron and slag. Methane is a component of the exhaust gases from the blast furnace. The IPCC has published emission factors for methane emitted from the production of coke, sinter, and pig iron.

Methane emissions from iron and steel production are not included in this inventory. The Energy Information Administration estimates that CH₄ emissions from iron and steel production were 0.048 million metric tons of CH₄ in 2001.⁵ Methane emissions from iron and steel production will be investigated further to be incorporated in future inventories.

N₂O from Caprolactam Production

Caprolactam is a widely used chemical intermediate, primarily to produce nylon-6. All processes for producing caprolactam involve the catalytic oxidation of ammonia, with N₂O being produced as a by-product. Caprolactam production could be a significant source of N₂O—it has been identified as such in the Netherlands. More research is required to determine this source's significance because there is currently insufficient information available on caprolactam production to estimate emissions in the United States. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, pp. 2.22 - 2.23)

N₂O from Cracking of Certain Oil Fractions

In order to improve the gasoline yield in crude oil refining, certain oil fractions are processed in a catcracker. Because crude oil contains some nitrogen, N₂O emissions may result from this cracking process. There is currently insufficient data to develop a methodology for estimating these emissions. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.23)

CH₄ from Coke Production

Coke production may result in CH₄ emissions. Detailed coke production statistics were not available for the purposes of estimating CH₄ emissions from this minor source. (See *Petrochemical Production in the Industrial Processes* chapter and the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.23)

⁵ Energy Information Administration: Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States, 2001, Page 43.

CO₂ from Metal Production

Coke is used as a reducing agent in the production of some metals from their ores, including magnesium, chromium, lead, nickel, silicon, tin, and zinc. Carbon dioxide may be emitted during the metal's production from the oxidization of this coke and, in some cases, from the carbonate ores themselves (e.g., some magnesium ores contain carbonate). The CO₂ emissions from the carbonate ores are not presently accounted for, but their quantities are thought to be minor. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.37 - 2.38)

N₂O from Acrylonitrile Production

Nitrous oxide may be emitted during acrylonitrile production. No methodology was available for estimating these emissions, and therefore further research is needed if these emissions are to be included. (See *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual*, p. 2.22)

SF₆ from Aluminum Fluxing and Degassing

Occasionally, sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is used by the aluminum industry as a fluxing and degassing agent in experimental and specialized casting operations. In these cases it is normally mixed with argon, nitrogen, and/or chlorine and blown through molten aluminum; however, this practice is not used by primary aluminum production firms in the United States and is not believed to be extensively used by secondary casting firms. Where it does occur, the concentration of SF₆ in the mixture is small and a portion of the SF₆ is decomposed in the process (Waite and Bernard 1990, Corns 1990). It has been estimated that 230 Mg of SF₆ were used by the aluminum industry in the United States and Canada (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer 1998); however, this estimate is highly uncertain.

SF₆ from Production/Leakage/Breakage of Soundproofed Double-glazed Windows

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) may be emitted from the production, breakage, or leakage of soundproof double-glazed windows. No methodology was available for estimating these emissions, and therefore further research is needed if these emissions are to be included.

SF₆ from Production/Leakage/Dismantling of Radar, Tracer and Night Vision Equipment

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) may be emitted from the production, leakage, and dismantling of radar, tracer, and night vision equipment. Emissions from this source are believed to be minor, and no data were available for estimating the emissions.

SF₆ from Applications in Sports Shoes, Tires, and Tennis Balls

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) may be emitted from application involving the production of sport shoes, tires, and tennis balls. These emissions are believed to be minor, and no data were available for estimating emissions.

SF₆ from Applications to Trace Leakage of Pressure Vessels and Used as a Tracer Gas in Open Air

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) may be emitted from application involving tracer gasses to detect leakage from pressure vessels and as a tracer gas in the open air. Although emissions from this source are believed to be minor, emissions estimation data and methodologies were not available.

Miscellaneous SF₆ Uses

Sulfur hexafluoride may be used in foam insulation, for dry etching, in laser systems, for indoor air quality testing, for laboratory hood testing, for chromatography, in tandem accelerators, in loudspeakers, in shock absorbers, and for certain biomedical applications. Data need to be gathered and methodologies developed if these emissions are to be estimated. A preliminary global assessment of aggregate emissions from these applications can be found in Maiss, M. Brenninkmeijer, and C.A.M. Brenninkmeijer (1998).

CO₂ from Solvent Incineration

Carbon dioxide may be released during the incineration of solvents. Although emissions from this source are believed to be minor, data need to be gathered and methodologies developed if these emissions are to be estimated. Solvents are hazardous wastes, and emissions from solvent incineration were taken into account to estimate the carbon storage factor for hazardous waste incineration. However, sufficient data is not available to obtain a complete time series estimate for this source category. Further research is required for these potential emissions to be fully quantified.

N₂O from Domestic House Animal Waste Deposited on Soils

A substantial amount of liquid and solid waste is produced by domestic animals that are kept as pets. A preliminary methodology was developed to estimate nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from the deposition of domestic house animal (i.e., dogs and cats) waste on lawns, fields and parks. Estimates calculated with this methodology suggest that, in 1990, approximately 330 Gg of nitrogen originating as domestic house animal waste were deposited on soils resulting in approximately 2.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. of N₂O emissions from soils. To estimate the amount of nitrogen deposited by domestic house animals, only those excretions that remained on land surfaces—as opposed to wastes that were collected by owners and are managed as municipal solid waste—were included.

Annual dog and cat population numbers were obtained from the Pet Food Institute.⁶ Annual nitrogen excretion rates were estimated from protein intake. The recommended protein intake for an average size adult of each animal type⁷ was multiplied by the average amount of nitrogen per unit of protein (0.16 kg N/kg protein, from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*) to estimate nitrogen consumption. It was then assumed that 95 percent of this nitrogen was excreted, either in solid or liquid form (i.e., it was assumed that 5 percent was retained for fur and milk production). Of the total nitrogen excretion, 90 percent was assumed to occur through liquid waste, with the balance from solid waste⁸. Both cat and dog populations were divided into urban and rural fractions, using the metropolitan and non-metropolitan human population categories, respectively, of the U.S. Census Bureau⁹. Both liquid and solid wastes from the urban cat population, and solid waste from the urban dog population were assumed to be collected (i.e., not deposited on soils). Nitrous oxide emission estimates from domestic house animal excretion were calculated in the same manner as performed for estimating emissions from livestock excretion. Producing these estimates involved making a number of simplifying assumptions regarding average animal size and protein consumption, as well as the proportions of animal populations residing in urban and rural areas and the proportions of wastes that are deposited on land. Further methodological development and data collection is required in order to reduce the uncertainty involved in the domestic house animal excretion estimates.

CO₂ from Food Scraps Disposed in Landfills

A certain amount of food scraps generated from food processing or as leftovers join the waste stream and are landfilled. Nationally, an estimated 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. per year are stored in the form of organic carbon contained in food scraps in landfills, acting as a carbon sink. A portion of the landfilled food scraps becomes a source of methane emissions, which offset the sink estimates to an extent. Further data collection on the amount and composition of food scraps generated and landfilled is required in order to reduce the uncertainty associated with this estimate.

CO₂ from Industrial Waste Combustion

Waste combustion is incorporated in two sections of the energy chapter of the inventory: in the section on CO₂ emissions from waste combustion, and in the calculation of emissions and storage from non-energy uses of

⁶ Pet Food Institute (1999) *Pet Incidence Trend Report*. Pet Food Institute, Washington DC.

⁷ Bright, S. (1999) Personal communication between Marco Alcaraz of ICF Consulting and Susan Bright of the Dupont Animal Clinic, Washington, DC, August 1999.

⁸ Swenson, M.J. and W.G. Reece, eds. (1993) *Duke's Physiology of Domestic Animals*. Cornell University Press. 11th Edition.

⁹ U.S. Census Bureau (1999) <<http://www.census.gov/population/estimates/metro-city/ma96-08.txt>>

fossil fuels. The former section addresses fossil-derived materials (such as plastics) that are discarded as part of the municipal wastestream and combusted (generally for energy recovery). The latter addresses two types of combustion: hazardous waste incineration of organic materials (assumed to be fossil-derived), in which regulated wastes are burned without energy recovery, and burning of fossil-derived materials for energy recovery. There is one potentially significant category of waste combustion that is not included in our calculus: industrial non-hazardous waste, burned for disposal (rather than energy recovery). Data are not readily available for this source; further research is needed to estimate the magnitude of CO₂ emissions.

CH₄ from Land-Use Changes Including Wetlands Creation or Destruction

Wetlands are a known source of methane (CH₄) emissions. When wetlands are destroyed, CH₄ emissions may be reduced. Conversely, when wetlands are created (e.g., during the construction of hydroelectric plants), CH₄ emissions may increase. Grasslands and forestlands may also be weak sinks for CH₄ due to the presence of methanotrophic bacteria that use CH₄ as an energy source (i.e., they oxidize CH₄ to CO₂). Currently, an adequate scientific basis for estimating these emissions and sinks does not exist, and therefore further research and methodological development is required.

N₂O from Wastewater Treatment and Biological Processes

As a result of nitrification and denitrification processes, nitrous oxide (N₂O) may be produced and emitted from large-scale composting, small scale composting (e.g. households), post-composting of anaerobic digested wastes, and both domestic and industrial wastewater treatment plants. Nitrogen-containing compounds are found in composted wastes and wastewater due to the presence of both human excrement and other nitrogen-containing constituents (e.g. garbage, industrial wastes, animal carcasses, etc.) The portion of emitted N₂O that originates from human excrement is currently estimated under the Human Sewage source category- based upon average dietary assumptions. The portion of emitted N₂O that originates from other nitrogen-containing constituents is not currently estimated. Further research and methodological development is needed if these emissions are to be accurately estimated.

CH₄ from Large and Small Scale Composting

Methane (CH₄) may be released through large and small scale (e.g. household) composting. Detailed composting data is necessary in order to estimate emissions but were not available.

CH₄ from Treatment of Dredging Sludge, Remediation of Groundwater, Intermediate Storage of Slaughter Waste, Production of Process Water from Groundwater, and Post Composting of Anaerobic Digested Wastes.

Methane (CH₄) may be released through the treatment of dredging sludge, remediation of groundwater, intermediate storage of slaughter waste, production of process water from groundwater, and post composting of anaerobic digested wastes. No methodology was available for estimating these emissions, and therefore further research is needed if these emissions are to be included.

References

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- EIA (2002) *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2001*. Energy Information Administration, Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting. DOE-EIA-0573(2001).
- EPA (2000) Toxics Release Inventory, 1998. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Environmental Information, Office of Information Analysis and Access, Washington, DC. Available online at <<http://www.epa.gov/triexplorer/chemical.htm>>.
- Freedonia Group, Inc. (2000) *Report 1091: Industrial Gases To 2003, Record 4, Carbon Dioxide Shipments and Production, 1989-2009*. Cleveland, OH.

ANNEX Y

Constants, Units, and Conversions

Metric Prefixes

Although most activity data for the United States is gathered in customary U.S. units, these units are converted into metric units per international reporting guidelines. The following table provides a guide for determining the magnitude of metric units.

Table Y-1: Guide to Metric Unit Prefixes

Prefix/Symbol	Factor
atto (a)	10^{-18}
femto (f)	10^{-15}
pico (p)	10^{-12}
nano (n)	10^{-9}
micro (μ)	10^{-6}
milli (m)	10^{-3}
centi (c)	10^{-2}
deci (d)	10^{-1}
deca (da)	10
hecto (h)	10^2
kilo (k)	10^3
mega (M)	10^6
giga (G)	10^9
tera (T)	10^{12}
peta (P)	10^{15}
exa (E)	10^{18}

Unit Conversions

1 kilogram = 2.205 pounds
1 pound = 0.454 kilograms
1 short ton = 2,000 pounds = 0.9072 metric tons
1 metric ton = 1,000 kilograms = 1.1023 short tons

1 cubic meter = 35.315 cubic feet
1 cubic foot = 0.02832 cubic meters
1 U.S. gallon = 3.785412 liters
1 barrel (bbl) = 0.159 cubic meters
1 barrel (bbl) = 42 U.S. gallons
1 liter = 0.1 cubic meters

1 foot = 0.3048 meters
1 meter = 3.28 feet
1 mile = 1.609 kilometers
1 kilometer = 0.622 miles

1 acre = 43,560 square feet = 0.4047 hectares = 4,047 square meters
1 square mile = 2.589988 square kilometers

To convert degrees Fahrenheit to degrees Celsius, subtract 32 and multiply by 5/9
To convert degrees Celsius to Kelvin, add 273.15 to the number of Celsius degrees

Density Conversions¹

Methane 1 cubic meter = 0.67606 kilograms
Carbon dioxide 1 cubic meter = 1.85387 kilograms

Natural gas liquids	1 metric ton	=	11.6 barrels	=	1,844.2 liters
Unfinished oils	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels	=	1,186.04 liters
Alcohol	1 metric ton	=	7.94 barrels	=	1,262.36 liters
Liquefied petroleum gas	1 metric ton	=	11.6 barrels	=	1,844.2 liters
Aviation gasoline	1 metric ton	=	8.9 barrels	=	1,415.0 liters
Naphtha jet fuel	1 metric ton	=	8.27 barrels	=	1,314.82 liters
Kerosene jet fuel	1 metric ton	=	7.93 barrels	=	1,260.72 liters
Motor gasoline	1 metric ton	=	8.53 barrels	=	1,356.16 liters
Kerosene	1 metric ton	=	7.73 barrels	=	1,228.97 liters
Naphtha	1 metric ton	=	8.22 barrels	=	1,306.87 liters
Distillate	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels	=	1,186.04 liters
Residual oil	1 metric ton	=	6.66 barrels	=	1,058.85 liters
Lubricants	1 metric ton	=	7.06 barrels	=	1,122.45 liters
Bitumen	1 metric ton	=	6.06 barrels	=	963.46 liters
Waxes	1 metric ton	=	7.87 barrels	=	1,251.23 liters
Petroleum coke	1 metric ton	=	5.51 barrels	=	876.02 liters
Petrochemical feedstocks	1 metric ton	=	7.46 barrels	=	1,186.04 liters
Special naphtha	1 metric ton	=	8.53 barrels	=	1,356.16 liters
Miscellaneous products	1 metric ton	=	8.00 barrels	=	1,271.90 liters

Energy Conversions

Converting Various Energy Units to Joules

The common energy unit used in international reports of greenhouse gas emissions is the joule. A joule is the energy required to push with a force of one Newton for one meter. A terajoule (TJ) is one trillion (10^{12}) joules. A British thermal unit (Btu, the customary U.S. energy unit) is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one pound of water one degree Fahrenheit at or near 39.2 Fahrenheit.

1 TJ = 2.388 $\times 10^{11}$ calories
23.88 metric tons of crude oil equivalent
947.8 million Btus
277,800 kilowatt-hours

Converting Various Physical Units to Energy Units

Data on the production and consumption of fuels are first gathered in physical units. These units must be converted to their energy equivalents. The values in the following table of conversion factors can be used as default factors, if local data are not available. See Appendix A of EIA's *Annual Energy Review 1997* (EIA 1998) for more detailed information on the energy content of various fuels.

¹ Reference: EIA (1998a)

Table Y-2: Conversion Factors to Energy Units (Heat Equivalents)

Fuel Type (Units)	Factor
Solid Fuels (Million Btu/Short ton)	
Anthracite coal	22.573
Bituminous coal	23.89
Sub-bituminous coal	17.14
Lignite	12.866
Coke	24.8
Natural Gas (Btu/Cubic foot)	1,027
Liquid Fuels (Million Btu/Barrel)	
Crude oil	5.800
Natural gas liquids and LRGs	3.777
Other liquids	5.825
Motor gasoline	5.253
Aviation gasoline	5.048
Kerosene	5.670
Jet fuel, kerosene-type	5.670
Distillate fuel	5.825
Residual oil	6.287
Naphtha for petrochemicals	5.248
Petroleum coke	6.024
Other oil for petrochemicals	5.825
Special naphthas	5.248
Lubricants	6.065
Waxes	5.537
Asphalt	6.636
Still gas	6.000
Misc. products	5.796

Note: For petroleum and natural gas, *Annual Energy Review 1997* (EIA 1998b). For coal ranks, *State Energy Data Report 1992* (EIA 1993). All values are given in higher heating values (gross calorific values).

References

EIA (1998a) *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States*, DOE/EIA-0573(97), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, DC. October.

EIA (1998b) *Annual Energy Review*, DOE/EIA-0384(97), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, DC. July.

EIA (1993) *State Energy Data Report 1992*, DOE/EIA-0214(93), Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy. Washington, DC. December.

ANNEX Z

Abbreviations

AAPFCO	American Association of Plant Food Control Officials
ABS	Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene
AFEAS	Alternative Fluorocarbon Environmental Acceptability Study
AFV	Alternative Fuel Vehicle
AGA	American Gas Association
AHEF	Atmospheric and Health Effect Framework
APC	American Plastics Council
API	American Petroleum Institute
ASAE	American Society of Agricultural Engineers
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
BEA	Bureau of Economic Analysis, U.S. Department of Commerce
BoC	Bureau of Census
BOD ₅	Biochemical oxygen demand over a 5-day period
BRS	Biennial Reporting System
BTS	Bureau of Transportation Statistics, U.S. Department of Transportation
Btu	British thermal unit
C&EN	Chemical and Engineering News
CAAA	Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990
CAPP	Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers
CBI	Confidential Business Information
CFC	Chlorofluorocarbon
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
CMA	Chemical Manufacturer's Association
CMOP	Coalbed Methane Outreach Program
CNG	Compressed Natural Gas
CRM	Crop Residue Management
CRP	Conservation Reserve Program
CTIC	Conservation Technology Information Center
CVD	Chemical vapor deposition
DE	Digestible Energy
DESC	Defense Energy Support Center-DoD's defense logistics agency
DFAMS	Defense Fuels Automated Management System
DIC	Dissolved inorganic carbon
DM	Dry Matter
DOC	U.S. Department of Commerce
DoD	U.S. Department of Defense
DOE	U.S. Department of Energy
DOI	U.S. Department of the Interior
DOT	U.S. Department of Transportation
EAF	Electric Arc Furnace
EF	Emission Factor
EGR	Exhaust Gas Recirculation
EIA	Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy
EIIP	Emissions Inventory Improvement Program
EOR	Enhanced oil recovery
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FCCC	Framework Convention on Climate Change
FEB	Fiber Economics Bureau
FHWA	Federal Highway Administration
FIA	Forest Inventory and Analysis
GAA	Governmental Advisory Associates
GCV	Gross calorific value
GDP	Gross domestic product
Gg	Gigagram
GHG	Greenhouse gas

GRI	Gas Research Institute
GSAM	Gas Systems Analysis Model
GWP	Global warming potential
HBFC	Hydrobromofluorocarbon
HC	Hydrocarbon
HCFC	Hydrochlorofluorocarbon
HDDV	Heavy duty diesel vehicle
HDGV	Heavy duty gas vehicle
HDPE	High density polyethylene
HFC	Hydrofluorocarbon
HFE	Hydrofluoroethers
HHV	Higher Heating Value
HMA	Hot Mix Asphalt
HTS	Harmonized Tariff Schedule
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
IEA	International Energy Association
IFO	Intermediate Fuel Oil
IISRP	International Institute of Synthetic Rubber Products
ILENR	Illinois Department of Energy and Natural Resources
IMO	International Maritime Organization
IPAA	Independent Petroleum Association of America
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LDDT	Light duty diesel truck
LDDV	Light duty diesel vehicle
LDGT	Light duty gas truck
LDGV	Light duty gas vehicle
LDPE	Low density polyethylene
LEV	Low emission vehicles
LFG	Landfill gas
LFGTE	Landfill gas-to-energy
LHV	Lower Heating Value
LLDPE	Linear low density polyethylene
LMOP	EPA's Landfill Methane Outreach Program
LNG	Liquefied Natural Gas
LPG	Liquefied petroleum gas(es)
LTO	Landing and take-off
LULUCF	Land use, land-use change, and forestry
MC	Motorcycle
MCF	Methane conversion factor
MGO	Marine Gas Oil
MLRA	Major Land Resource Area
MMCFD	Million Cubic Feet Per Day
MMS	Minerals Management Service
MMTCE	Million metric tons carbon equivalent
MSHA	Mine Safety and Health Administration
MSW	Municipal solid waste
MTBE	Methyl Tertiary Butyl Ether
NAHMS	National Animal Health Monitoring System
NAPAP	National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program
NASS	USDA's National Agriculture Statistics Service
NCV	Net calorific value
NEV	Neighborhood Electric Vehicle
NGL	Natural Gas Liquids
NIAR	Norwegian Institute for Air Research
NMVOC	Non-methane volatile organic compound
NO _x	Nitrogen Oxides
NPRA	National Petroleum and Refiners Association
NRC	National Research Council
NRCS	Natural Resources Conservation Service
NRI	National Resources Inventory
NSCR	Non-selective catalytic reduction
NVFEL	National Vehicle Fuel Emissions Laboratory

NWS	National Weather Service
OAQPS	EPA Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards
ODP	Ozone Depleting Potential
ODS	Ozone depleting substances
OECD	Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development
OMS	EPA Office of Mobile Sources
ORNL	Oak Ridge National Laboratory
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
OTA	Office of Technology Assessment
PAH	Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
PDF	Probability Density Function
PET	Polyethylene Terephthalate
PFC	Perfluorocarbon
PFPE	Perfluoropolyether
POTW	Publicly Owned Treatment Works
Ppbv	Parts per billion (10 ⁹) by volume
PPC	Precipitated calcium carbonate
Ppmv	Parts per million(10 ⁶) by volume
Pptv	Parts per trillion (10 ¹²) by volume
PS	Polystyrene
PSU	Primary Sample Unit
PVC	Polyvinyl chloride
QBtu	Quadrillion Btu
RCRA	Resource Conservation and Recovery Act
SAE	Society of Automotive Engineers
SAN	Styrene Acrylonitrile
SAR	IPCC Second Assessment Report
SBSTA	Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technical Advice
SCR	Selective catalytic reduction
SNAP	Significant New Alternative Policy Program
SNG	Synthetic natural gas
SOC	Soil Organic Carbon
STMC	Scrap Tire Management Council
SULEV	Super Ultra Low Emissions Vehicle
SWANA	Solid Waste Association of North America
TAME	Tertiary Amyl Methyl Ether
TAR	IPCC Third Assessment Report
TBtu	Trillion Btu
TDN	Total Digestible Nutrients
TgCO ₂ Eq	Teragrams carbon dioxide equivalent
TJ	Terajoule
TLEV	Traditional Low Emissions Vehicle
TRI	Toxic Release Inventory
TSDF	Hazardous waste treatment, storage, and disposal facility
TVA	Tennessee Valley Authority
U.S.	United States
UEP	United Egg Producers
ULEV	Ultra Low Emission Vehicle
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
USAF	United States Air Force
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USFS	United States Forest Service
USGS	United States Geological Survey
VAIP	EPA's Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership
VKT	Vehicle kilometers traveled
VMT	Vehicle miles traveled
VOCs	Volatile Organic Compounds
VS	Volatile Solids
WIP	Waste In Place
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
ZEVs	Zero Emissions Vehicles

ANNEX AA

Chemical Formulas

Table AA-1: Guide to Chemical Formulas

Symbol	Name
Al	Aluminum
Al ₂ O ₃	Aluminum Oxide
Br	Bromine
C	Carbon
CH ₄	Methane
C ₂ H ₆	Ethane
C ₃ H ₈	Propane
CF ₄	Perfluoromethane
C ₂ F ₆	Perfluoroethane, hexafluoroethane
c-C ₃ F ₆	Perfluorocyclopropane
C ₃ F ₈	Perfluoropropane
c-C ₄ F ₈	Perfluorocyclobutane
C ₄ F ₁₀	Perfluorobutane
C ₅ F ₁₂	Perfluoropentane
C ₆ F ₁₄	Perfluorohexane
CF ₃ I	Trifluoriodomethane
CFCl ₃	Trichlorofluoromethane (CFC-11)
CF ₂ Cl ₂	Dichlorodifluoromethane (CFC-12)
CF ₃ Cl	Chlorotrifluoromethane (CFC-13)
C ₂ F ₃ Cl ₃	Trichlorotrifluoroethane (CFC-113)*
CCl ₃ CF ₃	CFC-113a*
C ₂ F ₄ Cl ₂	Dichlorotetrafluoroethane (CFC-114)
C ₂ F ₅ Cl	Chloropentafluoroethane (CFC-115)
CHCl ₂ F	HCFC-21
CHF ₂ Cl	Chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22)
C ₂ F ₃ HCl ₂	HCFC-123
C ₂ F ₄ HCl	HCFC-124
C ₂ FH ₃ Cl ₂	HCFC-141b
C ₂ H ₃ F ₂ Cl	HCFC-142b
CF ₃ CF ₂ CHCl ₂	HCFC-225ca
CClF ₂ CF ₂ CHClF	HCFC-225cb
CCl ₄	Carbon tetrachloride
CHClCCl ₂	Trichloroethylene
CCl ₂ CCl ₂	Perchloroethylene, tetrachloroethene
CH ₃ Cl	Methylchloride
CH ₃ CCl ₃	Methylchloroform
CH ₂ Cl ₂	Methylenechloride
CHCl ₃	Chloroform, trichloromethane
CHF ₃	HFC-23
CH ₂ F ₂	HFC-32
CH ₃ F	HFC-41
C ₂ HF ₅	HFC-125
C ₂ H ₂ F ₄	HFC-134
CH ₂ FCF ₃	HFC-134a
C ₂ H ₃ F ₃	HFC-143*
C ₂ H ₃ F ₃	HFC-143a*
CH ₂ FCH ₂ F	HFC-152*
C ₂ H ₄ F ₂	HFC-152a*
CH ₃ CH ₂ F	HFC-161
C ₃ HF ₇	HFC-227ea
CF ₃ CF ₂ CH ₂ F	HFC-236cb
CF ₃ CHFCHF ₂	HFC-236ea

C ₃ H ₂ F ₆	HFC-236fa
C ₃ H ₃ F ₅	HFC-245ca
CHF ₂ CH ₂ CF ₃	HFC-245fa
CF ₃ CH ₂ CF ₂ CH ₃	HFC-365mfc
C ₅ H ₂ F ₁₀	HFC-43-10mee
CF ₃ OCHF ₂	HFE-125
CF ₂ HOCHF ₂ H	HFE-134
CH ₃ OCHF ₃	HFE-143a
CF ₃ CHFOCF ₃	HFE-227ea
CF ₃ CHCICHOCHF ₂	HCFE-235da2
CF ₃ CHFOCHF ₂	HFE-236ea2
CF ₃ CH ₂ OCHF ₃	HFE-236fa
CF ₃ CF ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-245cb2
CHF ₂ CH ₂ OCHF ₃	HFE-245fa1
CF ₃ CH ₂ OCHF ₂	HFE-245fa2
CHF ₂ CF ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-254cb2
CF ₃ CH ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-263fb2
CF ₃ CF ₂ OCHF ₂ CHF ₂	HFE-329mcc2
CF ₃ CF ₂ OCH ₂ CF ₃	HFE-338mcf2
CF ₃ CF ₂ CF ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-347mcc3
CF ₃ CF ₂ OCH ₂ CHF ₂	HFE-347mcf2
CF ₃ CHFCF ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-356mec3
CHF ₂ CF ₂ CF ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-356pcc3
CHF ₂ CF ₂ OCH ₂ CHF ₂	HFE-356pcf2
CHF ₂ CF ₂ CH ₂ OCHF ₂	HFE-356pcf3
CF ₃ CF ₂ CH ₂ OCH ₃	HFE-365mcf3
CHF ₂ CF ₂ OCH ₂ CH ₃	HFE-374pcf2
C ₄ F ₉ OCH ₃	HFE-7100
C ₄ F ₉ OC ₂ H ₅	HFE-7200
CHF ₂ OCHF ₂ OCHF ₂ F ₄ OCHF ₂	H-Galden 1040x
CHF ₂ OCHF ₂ OCHF ₂	HG-10
CHF ₂ OCHF ₂ CF ₂ OCHF ₂	HG-01
CH ₃ OCH ₃	Dimethyl ether
CH ₂ Br ₂	Dibromomethane
CH ₂ BrCl	Dibromochloromethane
CHBr ₃	Tribromomethane
CHBrF ₂	Bromodifluoromethane
CH ₃ Br	Methylbromide
CF ₂ BrCl	Bromodichloromethane (Halon 1211)
CF ₃ Br(CBrF ₃)	Bromotrifluoromethane (Halon 1301)
CF ₃ I	FIC-13I1
CO	Carbon monoxide
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
CaCO ₃	Calcium carbonate, Limestone
CaMg(CO ₃) ₂	Dolomite
CaO	Calcium oxide, Lime
Cl	atomic Chlorine
F	Fluorine
Fe	Iron
Fe ₂ O ₃	Ferric oxide
FeSi	Ferrosilicon
H, H ₂	atomic Hydrogen, molecular Hydrogen
H ₂ O	Water
H ₂ O ₂	Hydrogen peroxide
OH	Hydroxyl
N, N ₂	atomic Nitrogen, molecular Nitrogen
NH ₃	Ammonia
NH ₄ ⁺	Ammonium ion
HNO ₃	Nitric Acid
NF ₃	Nitrogen trifluoride
N ₂ O	Nitrous oxide
NO	Nitric oxide

NO ₂	Nitrogen dioxide
NO ₃	Nitrate radical
Na	Sodium
Na ₂ CO ₃	Sodium carbonate, soda ash
Na ₃ AlF ₆	Synthetic cryolite
O, O ₂	atomic Oxygen, molecular Oxygen
O ₃	Ozone
S	atomic Sulfur
H ₂ SO ₄	Sulfuric acid
SF ₆	Sulfur hexafluoride
SF ₅ CF ₃	Trifluoromethylsulphur pentafluoride
SO ₂	Sulfur dioxide
Si	Silicon
SiC	Silicon carbide
SiO ₂	Quartz

* Distinct isomers.

ANNEX AB

Glossary

Abiotic.⁷ Nonliving. Compare *biotic*.

Absorption of radiation.¹ The uptake of radiation by a solid body, liquid or gas. The absorbed energy may be transferred or re-emitted.

Acid deposition.⁶ A complex chemical and atmospheric process whereby recombined emissions of sulfur and nitrogen compounds are redeposited on earth in wet or dry form. See *acid rain*.

Acid rain.⁶ Rainwater that has an acidity content greater than the postulated natural pH of about 5.6. It is formed when sulfur dioxides and nitrogen oxides, as gases or fine particles in the atmosphere, combine with water vapor and precipitate as sulfuric acid or nitric acid in rain, snow, or fog. The dry forms are acidic gases or particulates. See *acid deposition*.

Acid solution.⁷ Any water solution that has more hydrogen ions (H⁺) than hydroxide ions (OH⁻); any water solution with a pH less than 7. See *basic solution, neutral solution*.

Acidic.⁷ See acid solution.

Adiabatic process.⁹ A thermodynamic change of state of a system such that no heat or mass is transferred across the boundaries of the system. In an adiabatic process, expansion always results in cooling, and compression in warming.

Aerosol.^{1&9} Particulate matter, solid or liquid, larger than a molecule but small enough to remain suspended in the atmosphere. Natural sources include salt particles from sea spray and dust and clay particles as a result of weathering of rocks, both of which are carried upward by the wind. Aerosols can also originate as a result of human activities and are often considered pollutants. Aerosols are important in the atmosphere as nuclei for the condensation of water droplets and ice crystals, as participants in various chemical cycles, and as absorbers and scatterers of solar radiation, thereby influencing the radiation budget of the Earth's climate system. See *climate, particulate matter*.

Afforestation.² Planting of new forests on lands that have not been recently forested.

Air carrier⁸ An operator (e.g., airline) in the commercial system of air transportation consisting of aircraft that hold certificates of, Public Convenience and Necessity, issued by the Department of Transportation, to conduct scheduled or non-scheduled flights within the country or abroad.

Air pollutant. See *air pollution*.

Air pollution.⁷ One or more chemicals or substances in high enough concentrations in the air to harm humans, other animals, vegetation, or materials. Such chemicals or physical conditions (such as excess heat or noise) are called air pollutants.

Albedo.⁹ The fraction of the total solar radiation incident on a body that is reflected by it.

Alkalinity.⁶ Having the properties of a base with a pH of more than 7. A common alkaline is baking soda.

Alternative energy.⁶ Energy derived from nontraditional sources (e.g., compressed natural gas, solar, hydroelectric, wind).

Anaerobic.⁶ A life or process that occurs in, or is not destroyed by, the absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic decomposition.² The breakdown of molecules into simpler molecules or atoms by microorganisms that can survive in the partial or complete absence of oxygen.

Anaerobic lagoon.² A liquid-based manure management system, characterized by waste residing in water to a depth of at least six feet for a period ranging between 30 and 200 days. Bacteria produce methane in the absence of oxygen while breaking down waste.

- Anaerobic organism.**⁷ Organism that does not need oxygen to stay alive. See *aerobic organism*.
- Antarctic “Ozone Hole.”**⁶ Refers to the seasonal depletion of stratospheric ozone in a large area over Antarctica. See *ozone layer*.
- Anthracite.**² A hard, black, lustrous coal containing a high percentage of fixed carbon and a low percentage of volatile matter. Often referred to as hard coal.
- Anthropogenic.**² Human made. In the context of greenhouse gases, emissions that are produced as the result of human activities.
- Arable land.**⁷ Land that can be cultivated to grow crops.
- Aromatic.**⁶ Applied to a group of hydrocarbons and their derivatives characterized by the presence of the benzene ring.
- Ash.**⁶ The mineral content of a product remaining after complete combustion.
- Asphalt.**² A dark-brown-to-black cement-like material containing bitumen as the predominant constituent. It is obtained by petroleum processing. The definition includes crude asphalt as well as the following finished products: cements, fluxes, the asphalt content of emulsions (exclusive of water), and petroleum distillates blended with asphalt to make cutback asphalt.
- Atmosphere.**¹ The mixture of gases surrounding the Earth. The Earth's atmosphere consists of about 79.1 percent nitrogen (by volume), 20.9 percent oxygen, 0.036 percent carbon dioxide and trace amounts of other gases. The atmosphere can be divided into a number of layers according to its mixing or chemical characteristics, generally determined by its thermal properties (temperature). The layer nearest the Earth is the *troposphere*, which reaches up to an altitude of about 8 kilometers (about 5 miles) in the polar regions and up to 17 kilometers (nearly 11 miles) above the equator. The *stratosphere*, which reaches to an altitude of about 50 kilometers (31 miles) lies atop the troposphere. The *mesosphere*, which extends from 80 to 90 kilometers atop the stratosphere, and finally, the *thermosphere*, or *ionosphere*, gradually diminishes and forms a fuzzy border with outer space. There is relatively little mixing of gases between layers.
- Atmospheric lifetime.** See *lifetime*.
- Atomic weight.**⁶ The average weight (or mass) of all the isotopes of an element, as determined from the proportions in which they are present in a given element, compared with the mass of the 12 isotope of carbon (taken as precisely 12.000), that is the official international standard; measured in daltons.
- Atoms.**⁷ Minute particles that are the basic building blocks of all chemical elements and thus all matter.
- Aviation Gasoline.**⁸ All special grades of gasoline for use in aviation reciprocating engines, as given in the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) specification D 910. Includes all refinery products within the gasoline range that are to be marketed straight or in blends as aviation gasoline without further processing (any refinery operation except mechanical blending). Also included are finished components in the gasoline range, which will be used for blending or compounding into aviation gasoline.
- Bacteria.**⁷ One-celled organisms. Many act as decomposers that break down dead organic matter into substances that dissolve in water and are used as nutrients by plants.
- Barrel (bbl).**⁶ A liquid-volume measure equal to 42 United States gallons at 60 degrees Fahrenheit; used in expressing quantities of petroleum-based products.
- Basic solution.**⁷ Water solution with more hydroxide ions (OH⁻) than hydrogen ions (H⁺); water solutions with pH greater than 7. See *acid solution*, *alkalinity*, *acid*.
- Biodegradable.**⁷ Material that can be broken down into simpler substances (elements and compounds) by bacteria or other decomposers. Paper and most organic wastes such as animal manure are biodegradable. See *nonbiodegradable*.
- Biofuel.**^{3&7} Gas or liquid fuel made from plant material (biomass). Includes wood, wood waste, wood liquors, peat, railroad ties, wood sludge, spent sulfite liquors, agricultural waste, straw, tires, fish oils, tall oil, sludge waste, waste alcohol, municipal solid waste, landfill gases, other waste, and ethanol blended into motor gasoline.

Biogeochemical cycle.⁷ Natural processes that recycle nutrients in various chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment. Examples are the carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus, and hydrologic cycles.

Biological oxygen demand (BOD).⁷ Amount of dissolved oxygen needed by aerobic decomposers to break down the organic materials in a given volume of water at a certain temperature over a specified time period. See *BOD5*.

Biomass.⁷ Total dry weight of all living organisms that can be supported at each trophic level in a food chain. Also, materials that are biological in origin, including organic material (both living and dead) from above and below ground, for example, trees, crops, grasses, tree litter, roots, and animals and animal waste.

Biomass energy.¹ Energy produced by combusting biomass materials such as wood. The carbon dioxide emitted from burning biomass will not increase total atmospheric carbon dioxide if this consumption is done on a sustainable basis (i.e., if in a given period of time, regrowth of biomass takes up as much carbon dioxide as is released from biomass combustion). Biomass energy is often suggested as a replacement for fossil fuel combustion.

Biosphere.^{2&7} The living and dead organisms found near the earth's surface in parts of the lithosphere, atmosphere, and hydrosphere. The part of the global carbon cycle that includes living organisms and biogenic organic matter.

Biotic.⁷ Living. Living organisms make up the biotic parts of ecosystems. See *abiotic*.

Bitumen.⁷ Goopy, black, high-sulfur, heavy oil extracted from tar sand and then upgraded to synthetic fuel oil. See *tar sand*.

Bituminous coal.² A dense, black, soft coal, often with well-defined bands of bright and dull material. The most common coal, with moisture content usually less than 20 percent. Used for generating electricity, making coke, and space heating.

BOD₅.² The biochemical oxygen demand of wastewater during decomposition occurring over a 5-day period. A measure of the organic content of wastewater. See *biological oxygen demand*.

British thermal unit (Btu).³ The quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one pound of water one degree of Fahrenheit at or near 39.2 degrees Fahrenheit.

Bunker fuel.² Fuel supplied to ships and aircraft for international transportation, irrespective of the flag of the carrier, consisting primarily of residual and distillate fuel oil for ships and jet fuel for aircraft.

Capacity Factor.³ The ratio of the electrical energy produced by a generating unit for a given period of time to the electrical energy that could have been produced at continuous full-power operation during the same period.

Carbon black.² An amorphous form of carbon, produced commercially by thermal or oxidative decomposition of hydrocarbons and used principally in rubber goods, pigments, and printer's ink.

Carbon cycle.² All carbon reservoirs and exchanges of carbon from reservoir to reservoir by various chemical, physical, geological, and biological processes. Usually thought of as a series of the four main reservoirs of carbon interconnected by pathways of exchange. The four reservoirs, regions of the Earth in which carbon behaves in a systematic manner, are the atmosphere, terrestrial biosphere (usually includes freshwater systems), oceans, and sediments (includes fossil fuels). Each of these global reservoirs may be subdivided into smaller pools, ranging in size from individual communities or ecosystems to the total of all living organisms (biota).

Carbon dioxide.² A colorless, odorless, non-poisonous gas that is a normal part of the ambient air. Carbon dioxide is a product of fossil fuel combustion. Although carbon dioxide does not directly impair human health, it is a greenhouse gas that traps terrestrial (i.e., infrared) radiation and contributes to the potential for global warming. See *global warming*.

Carbon dioxide equivalent (CO₂ Eq.).¹ A metric measure used to compare the emissions of the different greenhouse gases based upon their global warming potential (GWP). Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States are most commonly expressed as "teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalents" (Tg CO₂ Eq.). Global warming potentials are used to convert greenhouse gases to carbon dioxide equivalents. See *global warming potential, greenhouse gas*.

Carbon flux.⁹ The rate of exchange of carbon between pools (i.e., reservoirs).

Carbon intensity. The relative amount of carbon emitted per unit of energy or fuels consumed.

Carbon pool.⁹ The reservoir containing carbon as a principal element in the geochemical cycle.

Carbon sequestration.¹ The uptake and storage of carbon. Trees and plants, for example, absorb carbon dioxide, release the oxygen and store the carbon. Fossil fuels were at one time biomass and continue to store the carbon until burned. See *carbon sinks*.

Carbon sinks.¹ Carbon reservoirs and conditions that take-in and store more carbon (i.e., carbon sequestration) than they release. Carbon sinks can serve to partially offset greenhouse gas emissions. Forests and oceans are large carbon sinks. See *carbon sequestration*.

Carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄).¹¹ A compound consisting of one carbon atom and four chlorine atoms. It is an ozone depleting substance. Carbon tetrachloride was widely used as a raw material in many industrial applications, including the production of chlorofluorocarbons, and as a solvent. Solvent use was ended in the United States when it was discovered to be carcinogenic. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Chemical reaction.⁷ Interaction between chemicals in which there is a change in the chemical composition of the elements or compounds involved.

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs).⁷ Organic compounds made up of atoms of carbon, chlorine, and fluorine. An example is CFC-12 (CCl₂F₂), used as a refrigerant in refrigerators and air conditioners and as a foam blowing agent. Gaseous CFCs can deplete the ozone layer when they slowly rise into the stratosphere, are broken down by strong ultraviolet radiation, release chlorine atoms, and then react with ozone molecules. See *Ozone Depleting Substance*.

Climate.^{1&9} The average weather, usually taken over a 30 year time period, for a particular region and time period. Climate is not the same as weather, but rather, it is the average pattern of weather for a particular region. Weather describes the short-term state of the atmosphere. Climatic elements include precipitation, temperature, humidity, sunshine, wind velocity, phenomena such as fog, frost, and hail-storms, and other measures of the weather. See *weather*.

Climate change.¹ The term “climate change” is sometimes used to refer to all forms of climatic inconsistency, but because the Earth's climate is never static, the term is more properly used to imply a significant change from one climatic condition to another. In some cases, “climate change” has been used synonymously with the term, “global warming”; scientists however, tend to use the term in the wider sense to also include natural changes in climate. See *global warming, greenhouse effect, enhanced greenhouse effect, radiative forcing*.

Climate feedback.¹ An atmospheric, oceanic, terrestrial, or other process that is activated by direct climate change induced by changes in radiative forcing. Climate feedbacks may increase (positive feedback) or diminish (negative feedback) the magnitude of the direct climate change.

Climate lag.¹ The delay that occurs in climate change as a result of some factor that changes very slowly. For example, the effects of releasing more carbon dioxide into the atmosphere may not be known for some time because a large fraction is dissolved in the ocean and only released to the atmosphere many years later.

Climate sensitivity.¹ The equilibrium response of the climate to a change in radiative forcing; for example, a doubling of the carbon dioxide concentration. See *radiative forcing*.

Climate system (or Earth system).¹ The atmosphere, the oceans, the biosphere, the cryosphere, and the geosphere, together make up the climate system.

Coal.² A black or brownish black solid, combustible substance formed by the partial decomposition of vegetable matter without access to air. The rank of coal, which includes anthracite, bituminous coal, subbituminous coal, and lignite, is based on fixed carbon, volatile matter, and heating value. Coal rank indicates the progressive alteration, or coalification, from lignite to anthracite. See *anthracite, bituminous coal, subbituminous coal, lignite*.

Coal coke.² A hard, porous product made from baking bituminous coal in ovens at temperatures as high as 2,000 degrees Fahrenheit. It is used both as a fuel and as a reducing agent in smelting iron ore in a blast furnace.

- Coal gasification.**⁷ Conversion of solid coal to synthetic natural gas (SNG) or a gaseous mixture that can be burned as a fuel.
- Coal liquefaction.**⁷ Conversion of solid coal to a liquid fuel such as synthetic crude oil or methanol.
- Coalbed methane.**² Methane that is produced from coalbeds in the same manner as natural gas produced from other strata. Methane is the principal component of natural gas.
- Co-control benefit.**¹⁰ It is the additional benefit derived from an environmental policy that is designed to control one type of pollution, while reducing the emissions of other pollutants as well. For example, a policy to reduce carbon dioxide emissions might reduce the combustion of coal, but when coal combustion is reduced, so too are the emissions of particulates and sulfur dioxide.⁵ The benefits associated with reductions in emissions of particulates and sulfur dioxide are the co-control benefits of reductions in carbon dioxide.
- Cogeneration.**⁷ Production of two useful forms of energy such as high-temperature heat and electricity from the same process.
- Combustion.**² Chemical oxidation accompanied by the generation of light and heat.
- Commercial End-Use Sector:** Defined economically, consists of business establishments that are not engaged in transportation or in manufacturing or other types of industrial activities (e.g., agriculture, mining, or construction). Commercial establishments include hotels, motels, restaurants, wholesale businesses, retail stores, laundries, and other service enterprises; religious and nonprofit organizations; health, social, and educational institutions; and Federal, State, and local governments. Street lights, pumps, bridges, and public services are also included if the establishment operating them is considered commercial.
- Compost.**⁷ Partially decomposed organic plant and animal matter that can be used as a soil conditioner or fertilizer.
- Composting.**⁷ Partial breakdown of organic plant and animal matter by aerobic bacteria to produce a material that can be used as a soil conditioner or fertilizer. See *compost*.
- Compound.**⁷ Combination of two or more different chemical elements held together by chemical bonds. See *element*. See *inorganic compound*, *organic compound*.
- Concentration.**⁷ Amount of a chemical in a particular volume or weight of air, water, soil, or other medium. See *parts per billion*, *parts per million*.
- Conference Of Parties (COP).**¹⁰ The supreme body of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). It comprises more than 170 nations that have ratified the Convention. Its first session was held in Berlin, Germany, in 1995 and is expected to continue meeting on a yearly basis. The COP's role is to promote and review the implementation of the Convention. It will periodically review existing commitments in light of the Convention's objective, new scientific findings, and the effectiveness of national climate change programs. See *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change*.
- Conifer.**⁷ See *coniferous trees*.
- Coniferous trees.**⁷ Cone-bearing trees, mostly evergreens, that have needle-shaped or scale-like leaves. They produce wood known commercially as softwood. See *deciduous trees*.
- Cooling Degree Days:** The number of degrees per day that the average daily temperature is above 65° Fahrenheit. The daily average temperature is the mean of the maximum and minimum temperatures for a 24 hour period. (See Degree Days)
- Criteria pollutant.**² A pollutant determined to be hazardous to human health and regulated under EPA's National Ambient Air Quality Standards. The 1970 amendments to the Clean Air Act require EPA to describe the health and welfare impacts of a pollutant as the "criteria" for inclusion in the regulatory regime. In this report, emissions of the criteria pollutants CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ are reported because they are thought to be precursors to greenhouse gas formation.
- Crop residue.**² Organic residue remaining after the harvesting and processing of a crop.
- Crop rotation.**⁷ Planting the same field or areas of fields with different crops from year to year to reduce depletion of soil nutrients. A plant such as corn, tobacco, or cotton, which removes large amounts of nitrogen from the soil, is planted one year. The next year a legume such as soybeans, which add nitrogen to the soil, is planted.

Crude oil.² A mixture of hydrocarbons that exist in liquid phase in underground reservoirs and remain liquid at atmospheric pressure after passing through surface separating facilities. See *petroleum*.

Deciduous trees.⁷ Trees such as oaks and maples that lose their leaves during part of the year. See *coniferous trees*.

Decomposition.⁹ The breakdown of matter by bacteria and fungi. It changes the chemical composition and physical appearance of the materials.

Deforestation.¹ Those practices or processes that result in the conversion of forested lands for non-forest uses. This is often cited as one of the major causes of the enhanced greenhouse effect for two reasons: 1) the burning or decomposition of the wood releases carbon dioxide; and 2) trees that once removed carbon dioxide from the atmosphere in the process of photosynthesis are no longer present.

Degradable.⁷ See *biodegradable*.

Degree Days (Population Weighted): Heating or cooling degree days weighted by the population of the area in which the degree days are recorded. To compute State population-weighted degree days, each State is divided into from one to nine climatically homogeneous divisions, which are assigned weights based on the ratio of the population of the division to the total population of the State. Degree day readings for each division are multiplied by the corresponding population weight for each division and those products are then summed to arrive at the State population-weighted degree day value. To compute national population-weighted degree days, the Nation is divided into nine Census regions, each comprising from three to eight States, which are assigned weights based on the ratio of the population of the Nation. Degree day readings for each region are multiplied by the corresponding population weight for each region and those products are then summed to arrive at the national population-weighted degree day value. (See Heating Degree Days, Cooling Degree Days, and Degree Day Normals)

Degree Day Normals: Simple arithmetic averages of monthly or annual degree days over a long period of time (usually the 30 year period of 1961 through 1990). The averages may be simple degree day normals or population-weighted degree day normals.

Desertification.¹ The progressive destruction or degradation of existing vegetative cover to form a desert. This can occur due to overgrazing, deforestation, drought, and the burning of extensive areas. Once formed, deserts can only support a sparse range of vegetation. Climatic effects associated with this phenomenon include increased reflectivity of solar radiation, reduced atmospheric humidity, and greater atmospheric dust (aerosol) loading.

Distillate fuel oil.² A general classification for the petroleum fractions produced in conventional distillation operations. Included are products known as No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 fuel oils and No. 1, No. 2, and No. 4 diesel fuels. Used primarily for space heating, on and off-highway diesel engine fuel (including railroad engine fuel and fuel for agricultural machinery), and electric power generation.

Economy.⁷ System of production, distribution, and consumption of economic goods.

Ecosystem.¹⁰ The complex system of plant, animal, fungal, and microorganism communities and their associated non-living environment interacting as an ecological unit. Ecosystems have no fixed boundaries; instead their parameters are set to the scientific, management, or policy question being examined. Depending upon the purpose of analysis, a single lake, a watershed, or an entire region could be considered an ecosystem.

Electric Utility Sector: Privately and publicly owned establishments that generate, transmit, distribute, or sell electricity primarily for use by the public and meet the definition of an electric utility. Electric utilities include investor-owned, publicly owned, cooperative, and Federal utilities. Historically, they have generally been vertically integrated companies that provide for generation, transmission, distribution, and/or energy services for all customers in a designated service territory. Nonutility power producers are not included in the electric utility sector.

Electrons.⁷ Tiny particle moving around outside the nucleus of an atom. Each electron has one unit of negative charge (-) and almost no mass.

Element.⁷ Chemicals such as hydrogen (H), iron (Fe), sodium (Na), carbon (C), nitrogen (N), or oxygen (O), whose distinctly different atoms serve as the basic building blocks of all matter. There are 92 naturally

occurring elements. Another 15 have been made in laboratories. Two or more elements combine to form compounds that make up most of the world's matter. See *compound*.

Emission inventory. A list of air pollutants emitted into a community's, state's, nation's, or the Earth's atmosphere in amounts per some unit time (e.g. day or year) by type of source. An emission inventory has both political and scientific applications.

Emissions coefficient/factor.² A unique value for scaling emissions to activity data in terms of a standard rate of emissions per unit of activity (e.g., grams of carbon dioxide emitted per barrel of fossil fuel consumed).

Emissions.² Releases of gases to the atmosphere (e.g., the release of carbon dioxide during fuel combustion). Emissions can be either intended or unintended releases. See *fugitive emissions*.

Energy conservation.⁷ Reduction or elimination of unnecessary energy use and waste. See *energy-efficiency*.

Energy intensity.⁵ Ratio between the consumption of energy to a given quantity of output; usually refers to the amount of primary or final energy consumed per unit of gross domestic product.

Energy quality.⁷ Ability of a form of energy to do useful work. High-temperature heat and the chemical energy in fossil fuels and nuclear fuels are concentrated high quality energy. Low-quality energy such as low-temperature heat is dispersed or diluted and cannot do much useful work.

Energy.³ The capacity for doing work as measured by the capability of doing work (potential energy) or the conversion of this capability to motion (kinetic energy). Energy has several forms, some of which are easily convertible and can be changed to another form useful for work. Most of the world's convertible energy comes from fossil fuels that are burned to produce heat that is then used as a transfer medium to mechanical or other means in order to accomplish tasks. In the United States, electrical energy is often measured in kilowatt-hours (kWh), while heat energy is often measured in British thermal units (Btu).

Energy-efficiency.^{6&8} The ratio of the useful output of services from an article of industrial equipment to the energy use by such an article; for example, vehicle miles traveled per gallon of fuel (mpg).

Enhanced greenhouse effect.¹ The concept that the natural greenhouse effect has been enhanced by anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases. Increased concentrations of carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide, CFCs, HFCs, PFCs, SF₆, NF₃, and other photochemically important gases caused by human activities such as fossil fuel consumption, trap more infra-red radiation, thereby exerting a warming influence on the climate. See *greenhouse gas, anthropogenic, greenhouse effect, climate*.

Enhanced oil recovery.⁷ Removal of some of the heavy oil left in an oil well after primary and secondary recovery. See *primary oil recovery, secondary oil recovery*.

Enteric fermentation.² A digestive process by which carbohydrates are broken down by microorganisms into simple molecules for absorption into the bloodstream of an animal.

Environment.⁷ All external conditions that affect an organism or other specified system during its lifetime.

Ethanol (C₂H₅OH).⁸ Otherwise known as ethyl alcohol, alcohol, or grain spirit. A clear, colorless, flammable oxygenated hydrocarbon with a boiling point of 78.5 degrees Celsius in the anhydrous state. In transportation, ethanol is used as a vehicle fuel by itself (E100), blended with gasoline (E85), or as a gasoline octane enhancer and oxygenate (10 percent concentration).

Evapotranspiration.¹⁰ The loss of water from the soil by evaporation and by transpiration from the plants growing in the soil, which rises with air temperature.

Exponential growth.⁷ Growth in which some quantity, such as population size, increases by a constant percentage of the whole during each year or other time period; when the increase in quantity over time is plotted, this type of growth yields a curve shaped like the letter J.

Feedlot.⁷ Confined outdoor or indoor space used to raise hundreds to thousands of domesticated livestock. See *rangeland*.

Fertilization, carbon dioxide.¹ An expression (sometimes reduced to 'fertilization') used to denote increased plant growth due to a higher carbon dioxide concentration.

Fertilizer.⁷ Substance that adds inorganic or organic plant nutrients to soil and improves its ability to grow crops, trees, or other vegetation. See *organic fertilizer*.

Flaring.⁹ The burning of waste gases through a flare stack or other device before releasing them to the air.

Fluidized bed combustion (FBC).⁷ Process for burning coal more efficiently, cleanly, and cheaply. A stream of hot air is used to suspend a mixture of powdered coal and limestone during combustion. About 90 to 98 percent of the sulfur dioxide produced during combustion is removed by reaction with limestone to produce solid calcium sulfate.

Fluorocarbons.¹ Carbon-fluorine compounds that often contain other elements such as hydrogen, chlorine, or bromine. Common fluorocarbons include chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), and perfluorocarbons (PFCs). See *chlorofluorocarbons, hydrochlorofluorocarbons, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons*.

Forcing mechanism.¹ A process that alters the energy balance of the climate system (i.e., changes the relative balance between incoming solar radiation and outgoing infrared radiation from Earth). Such mechanisms include changes in solar irradiance, volcanic eruptions, and enhancement of the natural greenhouse effect by emission of carbon dioxide.

Forest.⁷ Terrestrial ecosystem (biome) with enough average annual precipitation (at least 76 centimeters or 30 inches) to support growth of various species of trees and smaller forms of vegetation.

Fossil fuel. A general term for buried combustible geologic deposits of organic materials, formed from decayed plants and animals that have been converted to crude oil, coal, natural gas, or heavy oils by exposure to heat and pressure in the earth's crust over hundreds of millions of years. See *coal, petroleum, crude oil, natural gas*.

Fossil fuel combustion.¹ Burning of coal, oil (including gasoline), or natural gas. The burning needed to generate energy release carbon dioxide by-products that can include unburned hydrocarbons, methane, and carbon monoxide. Carbon monoxide, methane, and many of the unburned hydrocarbons slowly oxidize into carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Common sources of fossil fuel combustion include cars and electric utilities.

Freon. See chlorofluorocarbon.

Fugitive emissions.² Unintended gas leaks from the production processing, transmission, and/or transportation of fossil fuels, CFCs from refrigeration leaks, SF₆ from electrical power distributor, etc.

Gasohol.⁷ Vehicle fuel consisting of a mixture of gasoline and ethyl or methyl alcohol; typically 10 to 23 percent ethanol by volume.

General Aviation.⁸ That portion of civil aviation, which encompasses all facets of aviation except air carriers. It includes any air taxis, commuter air carriers, and air travel clubs, which do not hold Certificates of Public Convenience and Necessity. See *air carriers*.

General circulation model (GCM).¹ A global, three-dimensional computer model of the climate system which can be used to simulate human-induced climate change. GCMs are highly complex and they represent the effects of such factors as reflective and absorptive properties of atmospheric water vapor, greenhouse gas concentrations, clouds, annual and daily solar heating, ocean temperatures and ice boundaries. The most recent GCMs include global representations of the atmosphere, oceans, and land surface.

Geosphere.¹ The soils, sediments, and rock layers of the Earth's crust, both continental and beneath the ocean floors.

Geothermal energy.⁷ Heat transferred from the earth's molten core to under-ground deposits of dry steam (steam with no water droplets), wet steam (a mixture of steam and water droplets), hot water, or rocks lying fairly close to the earth's surface.

Global Warming Potential (GWP).¹ The index used to translate the level of emissions of various gases into a common measure in order to compare the relative radiative forcing of different gases without directly calculating the changes in atmospheric concentrations. GWPs are calculated as the ratio of the radiative forcing that would result from the emissions of one kilogram of a greenhouse gas to that from the emission of one kilogram of carbon dioxide over a period of time (usually 100 years). Gases involved in complex atmospheric chemical processes have not been assigned GWPs. See *lifetime*.

Global warming.¹⁰ The progressive gradual rise of the earth's surface temperature thought to be caused by the greenhouse effect and responsible for changes in global climate patterns. See *enhanced greenhouse effect, greenhouse effect, climate change*.

Grassland.⁷ Terrestrial ecosystem (biome) found in regions where moderate annual average precipitation (25 to 76 centimeters or 10 to 30 inches) is enough to support the growth of grass and small plants but not enough to support large stands of trees.

Greenhouse effect.⁷ Trapping and build-up of heat in the atmosphere (troposphere) near the earth's surface. Some of the heat flowing back toward space from the earth's surface is absorbed by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, and several other gases in the atmosphere and then reradiated back toward the earth's surface. If the atmospheric concentrations of these greenhouse gases rise, the average temperature of the lower atmosphere will gradually increase. See *enhanced greenhouse effect, climate change, global warming*.

Greenhouse gas (GHG).¹ Any gas that absorbs infrared radiation in the atmosphere. Greenhouse gases include, but are not limited to, water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs), ozone (O₃), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). See *carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrochlorofluorocarbon, ozone, hydrofluorocarbon, perfluorocarbon, sulfur hexafluoride*.

Halocarbons.¹ Chemicals consisting of carbon, sometimes hydrogen, and either chlorine, fluorine, bromine or iodine.

Halons.¹ Compounds, also known as bromofluorocarbons, that contain bromine, fluorine, and carbon. They are generally used as fire extinguishing agents and cause ozone depletion. Bromine is many times more effective at destroying stratospheric ozone than chlorine. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Heat.⁷ Form of kinetic energy that flows from one body to another when there is a temperature difference between the two bodies. Heat always flows spontaneously from a hot sample of matter to a colder sample of matter. This is one way to state the second law of thermodynamics. See *temperature*.

Heat content.⁵ The amount of heat per unit mass released upon complete combustion.

Heating Degree Days: The number of degrees per day that the average daily temperature is below 65° Fahrenheit. The daily average temperature is the mean of the maximum and minimum temperatures for a 24 hour period. (See Degree Days)

Higher heating value.⁵ Quantity of heat liberated by the complete combustion of a unit volume or weight of a fuel assuming that the produced water vapor is completely condensed and the heat is recovered; also known as gross calorific value. See *lower heating value*.

Histosol.⁹ Wet organic soils, such as peats and mucks.

Hydrocarbons.¹ Substances containing only hydrogen and carbon. Fossil fuels are made up of hydrocarbons. Some hydrocarbon compounds are major air pollutants.

Hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs).¹ Compounds containing hydrogen, fluorine, chlorine, and carbon atoms. Although ozone depleting substances, they are less potent at destroying stratospheric ozone than chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). They have been introduced as temporary replacements for CFCs and are also greenhouse gases. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Hydroelectric power plant.⁷ Structure in which the energy of fading or flowing water spins a turbine generator to produce electricity.

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs).¹ Compounds containing only hydrogen, fluorine, and carbon atoms. They were introduced as alternatives to ozone depleting substances in serving many industrial, commercial, and personal needs. HFCs are emitted as by-products of industrial processes and are also used in manufacturing. They do not significantly deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, but they are powerful greenhouse gases with global warming potentials ranging from 140 (HFC-152a) to 11,700 (HFC-23).

Hydrologic cycle. The process of evaporation, vertical and horizontal transport of vapor, condensation, precipitation, and the flow of water from continents to oceans. It is a major factor in determining climate

through its influence on surface vegetation, the clouds, snow and ice, and soil moisture. The hydrologic cycle is responsible for 25 to 30 percent of the mid-latitudes' heat transport from the equatorial to polar regions.

Hydropower.⁷ Electrical energy produced by falling or flowing water. See *hydroelectric power plant*.

Hydrosphere.⁷ All the earth's liquid water (oceans, smaller bodies of fresh water, and underground aquifers), frozen water (polar ice caps, floating ice, and frozen upper layer of soil known as permafrost), and small amounts of water vapor in the atmosphere.

Industrial End-Use Sector: Comprises manufacturing industries, which make up the largest part of the sector, along with mining, construction, agriculture, fisheries, and forestry. Establishments in this sector range from steel mills to small farms to companies assembling electronic components. Nonutility power producers are also included in the industrial end-use sector.

Infrared radiation.¹ The heat energy that is emitted from all solids, liquids, and gases. In the context of the greenhouse issue, the term refers to the heat energy emitted by the Earth's surface and its atmosphere. Greenhouse gases strongly absorb this radiation in the Earth's atmosphere, and re-radiate some of it back towards the surface, creating the greenhouse effect.

Inorganic compound.⁷ Combination of two or more elements, neither of which is carbon. See *organic compound*.

Inorganic fertilizer.⁷ See *synthetic fertilizer*.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).¹ The IPCC was established jointly by the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization in 1988. The purpose of the IPCC is to assess information in the scientific and technical literature related to all significant components of the issue of climate change. The IPCC draws upon hundreds of the world's expert scientists as authors and thousands as expert reviewers. Leading experts on climate change and environmental, social, and economic sciences from some 60 nations have helped the IPCC to prepare periodic assessments of the scientific underpinnings for understanding global climate change and its consequences. With its capacity for reporting on climate change, its consequences, and the viability of adaptation and mitigation measures, the IPCC is also looked to as the official advisory body to the world's governments on the state of the science of the climate change issue. For example, the IPCC organized the development of internationally accepted methods for conducting national greenhouse gas emission inventories.

Irreversibilities.¹⁰ Changes that, once set in motion, cannot be reversed, at least on human time scales.

Jet fuel⁸ Includes both naphtha-type and kerosene-type fuels meeting standards for use in aircraft turbine engines. Although most jet fuel is used in aircraft, some is used for other purposes such as generating electricity.

Joule.¹ The energy required to push with a force of one Newton for one meter.

Kerogen.⁷ Solid, waxy mixture of hydrocarbons found in oil shale, with a fine grained sedimentary rock. When the rock is heated to high temperatures, the kerogen is vaporized. The vapor is condensed and then sent to a refinery to produce gasoline, heating oil, and other products. See *oil shale, shale oil*.

Kerosene.² A petroleum distillate that has a maximum distillation temperature of 401 degrees Fahrenheit at the 10 percent recovery point, a final boiling point of 572 degrees Fahrenheit, and a minimum flash point of 100 degrees Fahrenheit. Used in space heaters, cookstoves, and water heaters, and suitable for use as an illuminant when burned in wick lamps.

Kyoto Protocol.¹⁰ This is an international agreement struck by 159 nations attending the Third Conference of Parties (COP) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (held in December of 1997 in Kyoto, Japan) to reduce worldwide emissions of greenhouse gases. If ratified and put into force, individual countries have committed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by a specified amount. See *Framework Convention on Climate Change, Conference of Parties*.

Landfill.⁷ Land waste disposal site in which waste is generally spread in thin layers, compacted, and covered with a fresh layer of soil each day.

Lifetime (atmospheric).¹ The lifetime of a greenhouse gas refers to the approximate amount of time it would take for the anthropogenic increment to an atmospheric pollutant concentration to return to its natural level (assuming emissions cease) as a result of either being converted to another chemical compound or being taken

out of the atmosphere via a sink. This time depends on the pollutant's sources and sinks as well as its reactivity. The lifetime of a pollutant is often considered in conjunction with the mixing of pollutants in the atmosphere; a long lifetime will allow the pollutant to mix throughout the atmosphere. Average lifetimes can vary from about a week (e.g., sulfate aerosols) to more than a century (e.g., CFCs, carbon dioxide). See *residence time*.

Light-duty vehicles.⁸ Automobiles and light trucks combined.

Lignite.² A brownish-black coal of low rank with high inherent moisture and volatile matter content, used almost exclusively for electric power generation. Also referred to as brown coal.

Liquefied natural gas (LNG).⁷ Natural gas converted to liquid form by cooling to a very low temperature.

Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG).² Ethane, ethylene, propane, propylene, normal butane, butylene, and isobutane produced at refineries or natural gas processing plants, including plants that fractionate new natural gas plant liquids.

Litter.⁹ Undecomposed plant residues on the soil surface. See *decomposition*.

Longwave radiation.⁹ The radiation emitted in the spectral wavelength greater than 4 micrometers corresponding to the radiation emitted from the Earth and atmosphere. It is sometimes referred to as terrestrial radiation or infrared radiation, although somewhat imprecisely. See *infrared radiation*.

Low Emission Vehicle (LEV).⁸ A vehicle meeting the low-emission vehicle standards.

Lower heating value.⁵ Quantity of heat liberated by the complete combustion of a unit volume or weight of a fuel assuming that the produced water remains as a vapor and the heat of the vapor is not recovered; also known as net calorific value. See *higher heating value*.

Lubricant.² A substance used to reduce friction between bearing surfaces or as a process material, either incorporated into other materials used as aids in manufacturing processes or as carriers of other materials. Petroleum lubricants may be produced either from distillates or residues. Other substances may be added to impart or improve useful properties. Does not include by-products of lubricating oil from solvent extraction or tars derived from de-asphalting. Lubricants include all grades of lubricating oils from spindle oil to cylinder oil and those used in greases. Lubricant categories are paraffinic and naphthenic.

Manure.⁷ Dung and urine of animals that can be used as a form of organic fertilizer.

Mass balance.⁹ The application of the principle of the conservation of matter.

Mauna Loa.⁹ An intermittently active volcano 13,680 feet (4,170 meters) high in Hawaii.

Methane (CH₄).¹ A hydrocarbon that is a greenhouse gas with a global warming potential most recently estimated at 21. Methane is produced through anaerobic (without oxygen) decomposition of waste in landfills, animal digestion, decomposition of animal wastes, production and distribution of natural gas and petroleum, coal production, and incomplete fossil fuel combustion. The atmospheric concentration of methane has been shown to be increasing at a rate of about 0.6 percent per year and the concentration of about 1.7 per million by volume (ppmv) is more than twice its pre-industrial value. However, the rate of increase of methane in the atmosphere may be stabilizing.

Methanol (CH₃OH).⁸ A colorless poisonous liquid with essentially no odor and little taste. It is the simplest alcohol with a boiling point of 64.7 degrees Celsius. In transportation, methanol is used as a vehicle fuel by itself (M100), or blended with gasoline (M85).

Methanotrophic.⁷ Having the biological capacity to oxidize methane to CO₂ and water by metabolism under aerobic conditions. See *aerobic*.

Methyl bromide (CH₃Br).¹¹ An effective pesticide; used to fumigate soil and many agricultural products. Because it contains bromine, it depletes stratospheric ozone when released to the atmosphere. See *ozone depleting substance*.

Metric ton.¹ Common international measurement for the quantity of greenhouse gas emissions. A metric ton is equal to 1000 kilograms, 2204.6 pounds, or 1.1023 short tons.

Mineral.⁷ Any naturally occurring inorganic substance found in the earth's crust as a crystalline solid.

Model year.⁸ Refers to the “sales” model year; for example, vehicles sold during the period from October 1 to the next September 31 is considered one model year.

Molecule.⁷ Chemical combination of two or more atoms of the same chemical element (such as O₂) or different chemical elements (such as H₂O).

Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer.¹¹ The Montreal Protocol and its amendments control the phaseout of ozone depleting substances production and use. Under the Protocol, several international organizations report on the science of ozone depletion, implement projects to help move away from ozone depleting substances, and provide a forum for policy discussions. In the United States, the Protocol is implemented under the rubric of the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. See *ozone depleting substance, ozone layer*.

Motor gasoline.² A complex mixture of relatively volatile hydrocarbons, with or without small quantities of additives, obtained by blending appropriate refinery streams to form a fuel suitable for use in spark-ignition engines. Motor gasoline includes both leaded and unleaded grades of finished gasoline, blending components, and gasohol.

Municipal solid waste (MSW).² Residential solid waste and some non-hazardous commercial, institutional, and industrial wastes. This material is generally sent to municipal landfills for disposal. See *landfill*.

Naphtha.² A generic term applied to a petroleum fraction with an approximate boiling range between 122 and 400 degrees Fahrenheit.

Natural gas.⁷ Underground deposits of gases consisting of 50 to 90 percent methane (CH₄) and small amounts of heavier gaseous hydrocarbon compounds such as propane (C₃H₈) and butane (C₄H₁₀).

Natural gas liquids (NGLs).² Those hydrocarbons in natural gas that are separated as liquids from the gas. Includes natural gas plant liquids and lease condensate.

Nitrogen cycle.⁷ Cyclic movement of nitrogen in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.

Nitrogen fixation.⁷ Conversion of atmospheric nitrogen gas into forms useful to plants and other organisms by lightning, bacteria, and blue-green algae; it is part of the nitrogen cycle.

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x).¹ Gases consisting of one molecule of nitrogen and varying numbers of oxygen molecules. Nitrogen oxides are produced, for example, by the combustion of fossil fuels in vehicles and electric power plants. In the atmosphere, nitrogen oxides can contribute to formation of photochemical ozone (smog), impair visibility, and have health consequences; they are considered pollutants.

Nitrous oxide (N₂O).¹ A powerful greenhouse gas with a global warming potential most recently evaluated at 310. Major sources of nitrous oxide include soil cultivation practices, especially the use of commercial and organic fertilizers, fossil fuel combustion, nitric acid production, and biomass burning.

Nonbiodegradable.⁷ Substance that cannot be broken down in the environment by natural processes. See *biodegradable*.

Nonlinearities.¹⁰ Occur when changes in one variable cause a more than proportionate impact on another variable.

Non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs).² Organic compounds, other than methane, that participate in atmospheric photochemical reactions.

Non-point source.⁷ Large land area such as crop fields and urban areas that discharge pollutant into surface and underground water over a large area. See *point source*.

Nonutility Power Producer: A corporation, person, agency, authority, or other legal entity of instrumentality that owns electric generating capacity and is not an electric utility. Nonutility producers include qualifying cogenerators, qualifying small power producers, and other nonutility generators (including independent power producers) without a designated, franchised, service area that do not file forms listed in the Code of Federal Regulations, Title 18, Part 141.

Nuclear electric power.³ Electricity generated by an electric power plant whose turbines are driven by steam generated in a reactor by heat from the fissioning of nuclear fuel.

Nuclear energy. ⁷ Energy released when atomic nuclei undergo a nuclear reaction such as the spontaneous emission of radioactivity, nuclear fission, or nuclear fusion.

Oil shale. ⁷ Underground formation of a fine-grained sedimentary rock containing varying amounts of kerogen, a solid, waxy mixture of hydrocarbon compounds. Heating the rock to high temperatures converts the kerogen to a vapor, which can be condensed to form a slow flowing heavy oil called shale oil. See *kerogen, shale oil*.

Oil. See crude oil, petroleum.

Ore. ⁷ Mineral deposit containing a high enough concentration of at least one metallic element to permit the metal to be extracted and sold at a profit.

Organic compound. ⁷ Molecule that contains atoms of the element carbon, usually combined with itself and with atoms of one or more other element such as hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, phosphorus, chlorine, or fluorine. See *inorganic compound*.

Organic fertilizer. ⁷ Organic material such as manure or compost, applied to cropland as a source of plant nutrients.

Oxidize. ² To chemically transform a substance by combining it with oxygen.

Oxygen cycle. ⁷ Cyclic movement of oxygen in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.

Ozone. ⁶ A colorless gas with a pungent odor, having the molecular form of O₃, found in two layers of the atmosphere, the stratosphere and the troposphere. Ozone is a form of oxygen found naturally in the stratosphere that provides a protective layer shielding the Earth from ultraviolet radiation's harmful health effects on humans and the environment. In the troposphere, ozone is a chemical oxidant and major component of photochemical smog. Ozone can seriously affect the human respiratory system.

Ozone Depleting Substance (ODS). ¹¹ A family of man-made compounds that includes, but are not limited to, chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), bromofluorocarbons (halons), methyl chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, methyl bromide, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs). These compounds have been shown to deplete stratospheric ozone, and therefore are typically referred to as ODSs.

Ozone layer. ⁷ Layer of gaseous ozone (O₃) in the stratosphere that protects life on earth by filtering out harmful ultraviolet radiation from the sun. See *stratosphere, ultraviolet radiation*.

Ozone precursors. ² Chemical compounds, such as carbon monoxide, methane, non-methane hydrocarbons, and nitrogen oxides, which in the presence of solar radiation react with other chemical compounds to form ozone, mainly in the troposphere. See *troposphere*

Particulate matter (PM). ⁷ Solid particles or liquid droplets suspended or carried in the air.

Particulates. See *particulate matter*.

Parts per billion (ppb). ⁷ Number of parts of a chemical found in one billion parts of a particular gas, liquid, or solid mixture. See *concentration*.

Parts per million (ppm). ⁷ Number of parts of a chemical found in one million parts of a particular gas, liquid, or solid. See *concentration*.

Pentanes plus. ² A mixture of hydrocarbons, mostly pentanes and heavier fractions, extracted from natural gas.

Perfluorocarbons (PFCs). ¹ A group of human-made chemicals composed of carbon and fluorine only. These chemicals (predominantly CF₄ and C₂F₆) were introduced as alternatives, along with hydrofluorocarbons, to the ozone depleting substances. In addition, PFCs are emitted as by-products of industrial processes and are also used in manufacturing. PFCs do not harm the stratospheric ozone layer, but they are powerful greenhouse gases: CF₄ has a global warming potential (GWP) of 6,500 and C₂F₆ has a GWP of 9,200.

Petrochemical feedstock. ² Feedstock derived from petroleum, used principally for the manufacture of chemicals, synthetic rubber, and a variety of plastics. The categories reported are naphtha (endpoint less than 401 degrees Fahrenheit) and other oils (endpoint equal to or greater than 401 degrees Fahrenheit).

Petrochemicals.⁷ Chemicals obtained by refining (i.e., distilling) crude oil. They are used as raw materials in the manufacture of most industrial chemicals, fertilizers, pesticides, plastics, synthetic fibers, paints, medicines, and many other products. See *crude oil*.

Petroleum coke.² A residue that is the final product of the condensation process in cracking.

Petroleum.² A generic term applied to oil and oil products in all forms, such as crude oil, lease condensate, unfinished oils, petroleum products, natural gas plant liquids, and non-hydrocarbon compounds blended into finished petroleum products. See *crude oil*.

Photosynthesis.⁷ Complex process that takes place in living green plant cells. Radiant energy from the sun is used to combine carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water (H₂O) to produce oxygen (O₂) and simple nutrient molecules, such as glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆).

Photovoltaic and solar thermal energy.² Energy radiated by the sun as electromagnetic waves (electromagnetic radiation) that is converted into electricity by means of solar (i.e., photovoltaic) cells or useable heat by concentrating (i.e., focusing) collectors.

Point source.⁷ A single identifiable source that discharges pollutants into the environment. Examples are smokestack, sewer, ditch, or pipe. See *non-point source*.

Pollution.⁷ A change in the physical, chemical, or biological characteristics of the air, water, or soil that can affect the health, survival, or activities of humans in an unwanted way. Some expand the term to include harmful effects on all forms of life.

Polyvinyl chloride (PVC).² A polymer of vinyl chloride. It is tasteless, odorless and insoluble in most organic solvents. A member of the family vinyl resin, used in soft flexible films for food packaging and in molded rigid products, such as pipes, fibers, upholstery, and bristles.

Population.⁷ Group of individual organisms of the same species living within a particular area.

Prescribed burning.⁷ Deliberate setting and careful control of surface fires in forests to help prevent more destructive fires and to kill off unwanted plants that compete with commercial species for plant nutrients; may also be used on grasslands.

Primary oil recovery.⁷ Pumping out the crude oil that flows by gravity into the bottom of an oil well. See *enhanced oil recovery*, *secondary oil recovery*.

Quad.⁸ Quad stands for quadrillion, which is, 10¹⁵.

Radiation.¹ Energy emitted in the form of electromagnetic waves. Radiation has differing characteristics depending upon the wavelength. Because the radiation from the Sun is relatively energetic, it has a short wavelength (e.g., ultraviolet, visible, and near infrared) while energy re-radiated from the Earth's surface and the atmosphere has a longer wavelength (e.g., infrared radiation) because the Earth is cooler than the Sun. See *ultraviolet radiation*, *infrared radiation*, *solar radiation*, *longwave radiation*, *terrestrial radiation*.

Radiative forcing.¹ A change in the balance between incoming solar radiation and outgoing infrared (i.e., thermal) radiation. Without any radiative forcing, solar radiation coming to the Earth would continue to be approximately equal to the infrared radiation emitted from the Earth. The addition of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere traps an increased fraction of the infrared radiation, reradiating it back toward the surface of the Earth and thereby creates a warming influence.

Rail.⁸ Includes "heavy" and "light" transit rail. Heavy transit rail is characterized by exclusive rights-of-way, multi-car trains, high speed rapid acceleration, sophisticated signaling, and high platform loading. Also known as subway, elevated railway, or metropolitan railway (metro). Light transit rail may be on exclusive or shared rights of way, high or low platform, multi-car trains or single cars, automated or manually operated. In generic usage, light rail includes streetcars, trolley cars, and tramways.

Rangeland.⁷ Land, mostly grasslands, whose plants can provide food (i.e., forage) for grazing or browsing animals. See *feedlot*.

Recycling.⁷ Collecting and reprocessing a resource so it can be used again. An example is collecting aluminum cans, melting them down, and using the aluminum to make new cans or other aluminum products.

Reforestation.² Replanting of forests on lands that have recently been harvested.

Renewable energy.² Energy obtained from sources that are essentially inexhaustible, unlike, for example, the fossil fuels, of which there is a finite supply. Renewable sources of energy include wood, waste, geothermal, wind, photovoltaic, and solar thermal energy. See *hydropower, photovoltaic*.

Residence time.¹ Average time spent in a reservoir by an individual atom or molecule. Also, this term is used to define the age of a molecule when it leaves the reservoir. With respect to greenhouse gases, residence time usually refers to how long a particular molecule remains in the atmosphere. See *lifetime*.

Residential End-Use Sector: Consists of all private residences, whether occupied or vacant, owned or rented, including single family homes, multifamily housing units, and mobile homes. Secondary home, such as summer homes, are also included. Institutional housing, such as school dormitories, hospitals, and military barracks, generally are not included in the residential end-use sector, but are instead included in the commercial end-use sector.

Residual fuel oil.² The heavier oils that remain after the distillate fuel oils and lighter hydrocarbons are distilled away in refinery operations and that conform to ASTM Specifications D396 and D975. Included are No. 5, a residual fuel oil of medium viscosity; Navy Special, for use in steam-powered vessels in government service and in shore power plants; and No. 6, which includes Bunker C fuel oil and is used for commercial and industrial heating, electricity generation, and to power ships. Imports of residual fuel oil include imported crude oil burned as fuel.

Secondary oil recovery.⁷ Injection of water into an oil well after primary oil recovery to force out some of the remaining thicker crude oil. See *enhanced oil recovery, primary oil recovery*.

Sector. Division, most commonly used to denote type of energy consumer (e.g., residential) or according to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, the type of greenhouse gas emitter (e.g. industrial process). See *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*.

Septic tank.⁷ Underground tank for treatment of wastewater from a home in rural and suburban areas. Bacteria in the tank decompose organic wastes and the sludge settles to the bottom of the tank. The effluent flows out of the tank into the ground through a field of drainpipes.

Sewage treatment (primary).⁷ Mechanical treatment of sewage in which large solids are filtered out by screens and suspended solids settle out as sludge in a sedimentation tank.

Shale oil.⁷ Slow-flowing, dark brown, heavy oil obtained when kerogen in oil shale is vaporized at high temperatures and then condensed. Shale oil can be refined to yield gasoline, heating oil, and other petroleum products. See *kerogen, oil shale*.

Short ton.¹ Common measurement for a ton in the United States. A short ton is equal to 2,000 lbs. or 0.907 metric tons.

Sink.¹ A reservoir that uptakes a pollutant from another part of its cycle. Soil and trees tend to act as natural sinks for carbon.

Sludge.⁷ Goopy solid mixture of bacteria and virus laden organic matter, toxic metals, synthetic organic chemicals, and solid chemicals removed from wastewater at a sewage treatment plant.

Soil.⁷ Complex mixture of inorganic minerals (i.e., mostly clay, silt, and sand), decaying organic matter, water, air, and living organisms.

Soil carbon.⁹ A major component of the terrestrial biosphere pool in the carbon cycle. The amount of carbon in the soil is a function of the historical vegetative cover and productivity, which in turn is dependent in part upon climatic variables.

Solar energy.⁷ Direct radiant energy from the sun. It also includes indirect forms of energy such as wind, falling or flowing water (hydropower), ocean thermal gradients, and biomass, which are produced when direct solar energy interact with the earth. See *solar radiation*.

Solar radiation.¹ Energy from the Sun. Also referred to as short-wave radiation. Of importance to the climate system, solar radiation includes ultra-violet radiation, visible radiation, and infrared radiation.

Source.⁴ Any process or activity that releases a greenhouse gas, an aerosol, or a precursor of a greenhouse gas into the atmosphere.

Special naphtha.² All finished products within the naphtha boiling range that are used as paint thinners, cleaners, or solvents. Those products are refined to a specified flash point.

Still gas.² Any form or mixture of gases produced in refineries by distillation, cracking, reforming, and other processes. Principal constituents are methane, ethane, ethylene, normal butane, butylene, propane, propylene, etc. Used as a refinery fuel and as a petrochemical feedstock.

Stratosphere.⁷ Second layer of the atmosphere, extending from about 19 to 48 kilometers (12 to 30 miles) above the earth's surface. It contains small amounts of gaseous ozone (O_3), which filters out about 99 percent of the incoming harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation. Most commercial airline flights operate at a cruising altitude in the lower stratosphere. See *ozone layer, ultraviolet radiation*.

Stratospheric ozone. See *ozone layer*.

Strip mining.⁷ Cutting deep trenches to remove minerals such as coal and phosphate found near the earth's surface in flat or rolling terrain. See *surface mining*.

Subbituminous coal.² A dull, black coal of rank intermediate between lignite and bituminous coal.

Sulfur cycle.⁷ Cyclic movement of sulfur in different chemical forms from the environment, to organisms, and then back to the environment.

Sulfur dioxide (SO_2).¹ A compound composed of one sulfur and two oxygen molecules. Sulfur dioxide emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes is changed in a complex series of chemical reactions in the atmosphere to sulfate aerosols. These aerosols are believed to result in negative radiative forcing (i.e., tending to cool the Earth's surface) and do result in acid deposition (e.g., acid rain). See *aerosols, radiative forcing, acid deposition, acid rain*.

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6).¹ A colorless gas soluble in alcohol and ether, slightly soluble in water. A very powerful greenhouse gas used primarily in electrical transmission and distribution systems and as a dielectric in electronics. The global warming potential of SF_6 is 23,900. See *Global Warming Potential*.

Surface mining.⁷ Removal of soil, sub-soil, and other strata and then extracting a mineral deposit found fairly close to the earth's surface. See *strip mining*.

Synthetic fertilizer.⁷ Commercially prepared mixtures of plant nutrients such as nitrates, phosphates, and potassium applied to the soil to restore fertility and increase crop yields. See *organic fertilizer*.

Synthetic natural gas (SNG).³ A manufactured product chemically similar in most respects to natural gas, resulting from the conversion or reforming of petroleum hydrocarbons. It may easily be substituted for, or interchanged with, pipeline quality natural gas.

Tailings.⁷ Rock and other waste materials removed as impurities when minerals are mined and mineral deposits are processed. These materials are usually dumped on the ground or into ponds.

Tar sand.⁷ Swamp-like deposit of a mixture of fine clay, sand, water, and variable amounts of tar-like heavy oil known as bitumen. Bitumen can be extracted from tar sand by heating. It can then be purified and upgraded to synthetic crude oil. See *bitumen*.

Temperature.⁷ Measure of the average speed of motion of the atoms or molecules in a substance or combination of substances at a given moment. See *heat*.

Terrestrial.⁷ Pertaining to land.

Terrestrial radiation.⁹ The total infrared radiation emitted by the Earth and its atmosphere in the temperature range of approximately 200 to 300 Kelvin. Terrestrial radiation provides a major part of the potential energy changes necessary to drive the atmospheric wind system and is responsible for maintaining the surface air temperature within limits of livability.

Trace gas.¹ Any one of the less common gases found in the Earth's atmosphere. Nitrogen, oxygen, and argon make up more than 99 percent of the Earth's atmosphere. Other gases, such as carbon dioxide, water vapor, methane,

oxides of nitrogen, ozone, and ammonia, are considered trace gases. Although relatively unimportant in terms of their absolute volume, they have significant effects on the Earth's weather and climate.

Transportation End-Use Sector: Consists of private and public vehicles that move people and commodities. Included are automobiles, trucks, buses, motorcycles, railroads and railways (including streetcars and subways), aircraft, ships, barges, and natural gas pipelines.

Troposphere.^{1&7} The lowest layer of the atmosphere and contains about 95 percent of the mass of air in the Earth's atmosphere. The troposphere extends from the Earth's surface up to about 10 to 15 kilometers. All weather processes take place in the troposphere. Ozone that is formed in the troposphere plays a significant role in both the greenhouse gas effect and urban smog. See *ozone precursor, stratosphere, atmosphere.*

Tropospheric ozone precursor. See *ozone precursor.*

Tropospheric ozone.¹ See *ozone.*

Ultraviolet radiation (UV).¹¹ A portion of the electromagnetic spectrum with wavelengths shorter than visible light. The sun produces UV, which is commonly split into three bands of decreasing wavelength. Shorter wavelength radiation has a greater potential to cause biological damage on living organisms. The longer wavelength ultraviolet band, UVA, is not absorbed by ozone in the atmosphere. UVB is mostly absorbed by ozone, although some reaches the Earth. The shortest wavelength band, UVC, is completely absorbed by ozone and normal oxygen in the atmosphere.

Unfinished oils.³ All oils requiring further refinery processing, except those requiring only mechanical blending. Includes naphtha and lighter oils, kerosene and light gas oils, heavy gas oils, and residuum.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).¹ The international treaty unveiled at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in June 1992. The UNFCCC commits signatory countries to stabilize anthropogenic (i.e. human-induced) greenhouse gas emissions to “levels that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system”. The UNFCCC also requires that all signatory parties develop and update national inventories of anthropogenic emissions of all greenhouse gases not otherwise controlled by the Montreal Protocol. Out of 155 countries that have ratified this accord, the United States was the first industrialized nation to do so.

Vehicle miles traveled (VMT).⁸ One vehicle traveling the distance of one mile. Thus, total vehicle miles is the total mileage traveled by all vehicles.

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs).⁶ Organic compounds that evaporate readily into the atmosphere at normal temperatures. VOCs contribute significantly to photochemical smog production and certain health problems. See *non-methane volatile organic compounds.*

Wastewater.² Water that has been used and contains dissolved or suspended waste materials. See *sewage treatment.*

Water vapor.¹ The most abundant greenhouse gas; it is the water present in the atmosphere in gaseous form. Water vapor is an important part of the natural greenhouse effect. While humans are not significantly increasing its concentration, it contributes to the enhanced greenhouse effect because the warming influence of greenhouse gases leads to a positive water vapor feedback. In addition to its role as a natural greenhouse gas, water vapor plays an important role in regulating the temperature of the planet because clouds form when excess water vapor in the atmosphere condenses to form ice and water droplets and precipitation.

Waxes.² Solid or semisolid materials derived from petroleum distillates or residues. Light-colored, more or less translucent crystalline masses, slightly greasy to the touch, consisting of a mixture of solid hydrocarbons in which the paraffin series predominates. Included are all marketable waxes, whether crude scale or fully refined. Used primarily as industrial coating for surface protection.

Weather.¹ Weather is the specific condition of the atmosphere at a particular place and time. It is measured in terms of such things as wind, temperature, humidity, atmospheric pressure, cloudiness, and precipitation. In most places, weather can change from hour-to-hour, day-to-day, and season-to-season. Climate is the average of weather over time and space. A simple way of remembering the difference is that climate is what you expect (e.g. cold winters) and ‘weather’ is what you get (e.g. a blizzard). See *climate.*

Wetland.⁷ Land that stays flooded all or part of the year with fresh or salt water.

Wetlands.² Areas regularly saturated by surface or groundwater and subsequently characterized by a prevalence of vegetation adapted for life in saturated-soil conditions.

Wood energy.² Wood and wood products used as fuel, including roundwood (i.e., cordwood), limbwood, wood chips, bark, sawdust, forest residues, and charcoal.

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